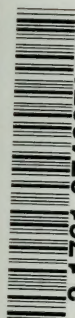


THE GERMAN EM-
PIRE OF TO-DAY
BY 'VERITAS' *J J*



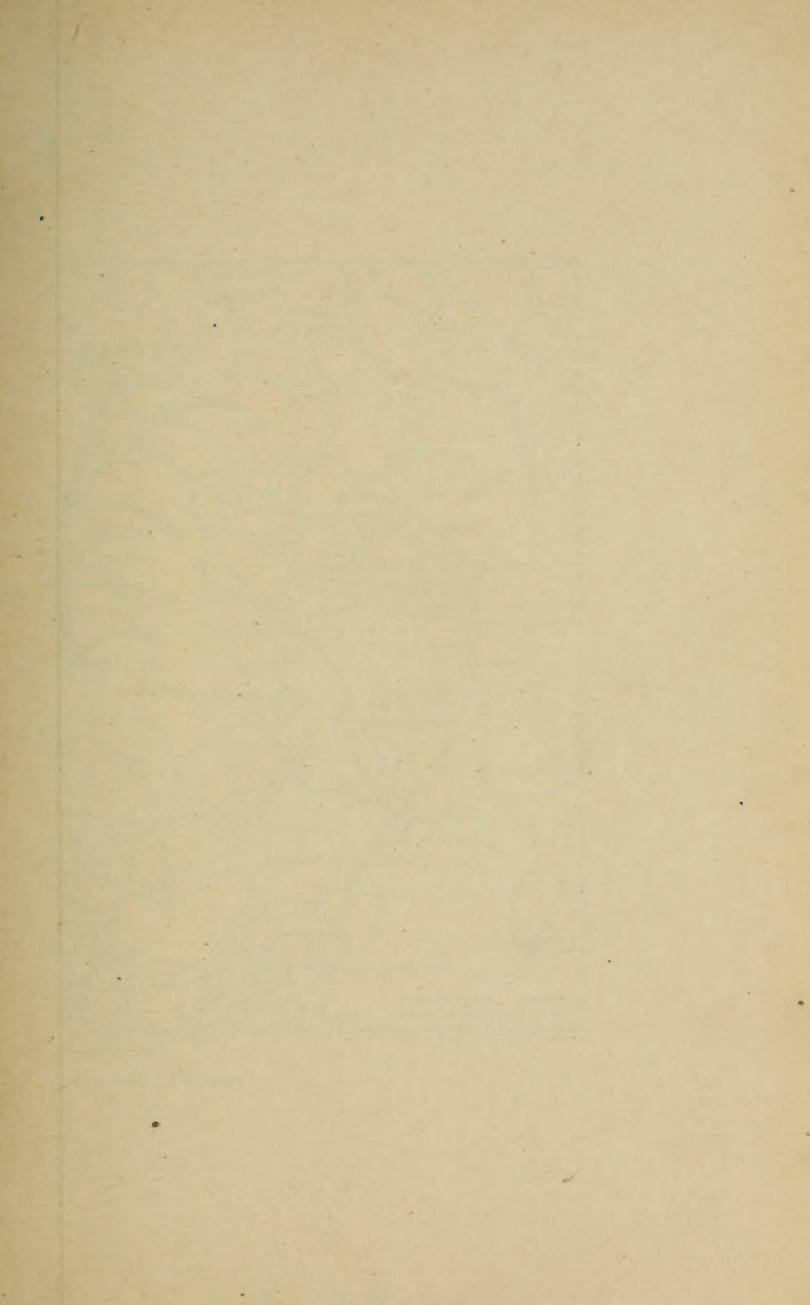
3 1761 07468728 6

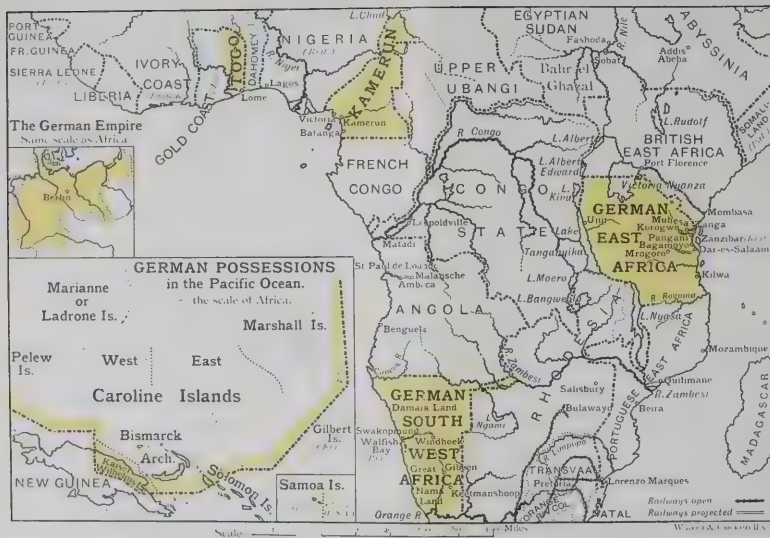


**THE GERMAN EMPIRE
OF TO-DAY**

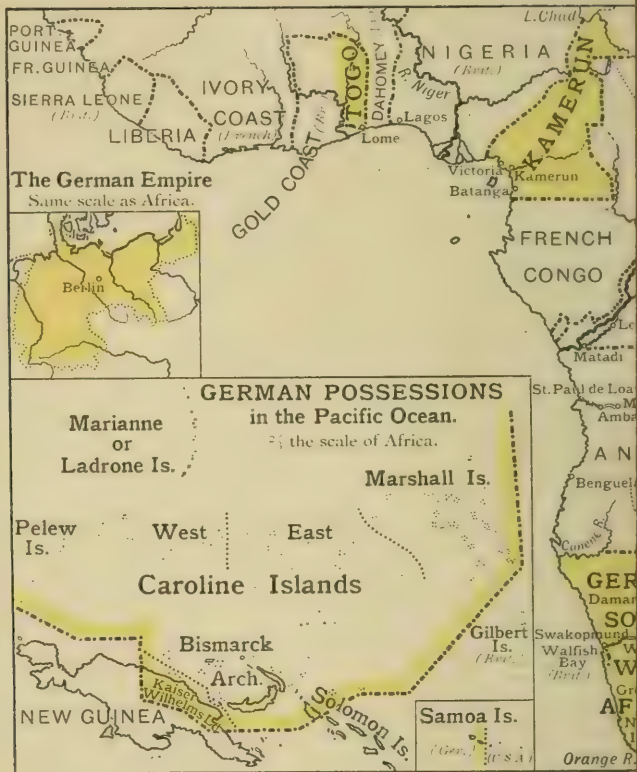


Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2010 with funding from
University of Toronto





SKETCH MAP OF GERMAN COLONIAL POSSESSIONS



Scale: 1" = 4,000,000"

SKETCH MAP OF GERMAN COL

THE GERMAN EMPIRE OF TO-DAY

*OUTLINES OF ITS FORMATION
AND DEVELOPMENT*

BY

‘VERITAS’

‘Facts are stubborn things’—LE SAGE

WITH MAP

6 2 2 2 2
—
7 / 6 / 0 4

LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO.

39 PATERNOSTER ROW, LONDON

NEW YORK AND BOMBAY

1902

All rights reserved

PREFACE

A WORD to the reader of these 'Outlines.' They do not put anything materially new before the public, but merely attempt to present a short retrospective account of certain specific phases of German progress in recent times, preceded by a brief summary of political and constitutional history up to 1871, necessary to a proper understanding of the succeeding chapters. Their object is to give a rough idea of some of the main lines of the formation and expansion of the German Empire, now the cynosure of all eyes in Europe, and around which there hovers a certain fascination for those who are interested in its past history, its

present economic growth, and its future possibilities.

During the nineteenth century which has just passed away there has been so much of 'the unexpected' in the now historical deeds of the German people that one naturally asks with interest: 'What are they likely to accomplish hereafter under the auspices of their present brilliant and energetic Emperor?' The answer to this great question of the twentieth century can only be furnished by the historian of the future. Meanwhile, well-known facts and authentic events are merely placed on record here, leaving to others all enigmatical inferences as to their significance.

Should mistakes, by some mischance, have inadvertently crept into this work, a benevolent indulgence is sought for on the ground that, in spite of the greatest care, even—

'The best may slip, and the most cautious fall;
He's more than mortal that ne'er err'd at all.'

POMFRET.

Owing, perhaps, to want of easily accessible information, there appears to be often a remarkable lack of rudimentary acquaintance with Germany under its modern aspects. In the essentially elementary data contained in this book much has had to be omitted for the sake of brevity. It is hoped, however, that a sufficient outline of some of the salient points of the evolution of the nation during the nineteenth century has been sketched to induce the reader to proceed to a real study of the status of the Empire to-day.

March 1, 1902.

CONTENTS

	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. GERMAN HISTORY UP TO 1871	11
III. NATIONAL PROGRESS SINCE 1871	40
IV. THE ARMY AND NAVY	82
V. COMMERCIAL POLICY	129
VI. TRAFFIC POLICY	164
VII. COLONIAL POLICY	195
VIII. COLONIAL POSSESSIONS	223
IX. NATIONAL EDUCATION	251
X. GERMAN FINANCES	288

APPENDIX

IMPERIAL LEGISLATION FOR IMPROVING THE CONDITION OF THE WORKING CLASSES . . .	323
INDEX OF CONTENTS	331

SKETCH MAP OF GERMAN COLONIAL POSSESSIONS .	<i>Frontispiece</i>
---	---------------------

THE GERMAN EMPIRE OF TO-DAY

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

THE rise and fall of nations is always an attractive study. This is especially the case when a country is rising to untold fortunes and is not on the wane, like Lord Salisbury's 'decaying nations.' With Germany it is, of course, a question of ascent, not descent. The German Empire of to-day is a solid structure that has stood the test of thirty years of life. Nothing can now shake its *solidarité*. There it stands, an everlasting monument to the ability of its founders and of their illustrious successors. The nation is gathering strength and stature year by year. It is sound, healthy, and vigorous.

The great men who laid its foundations have passed away, leaving their footprints on the sands of time. King William of Prussia, the first German Emperor, was crowned at Versailles, just before the termination of the war with France, in the presence of a brilliant assembly of German princes. He enjoyed a peaceful yet glorious reign of twenty years, during which he saw his dominions expand to unexpected dimensions. Bismarck, Moltke, von Roon, and the others have come and gone: they were Empire-makers of a stamp not easily to be found again. Fortunate it was for the German people that they were there at hand during the years when the country required just such men and the abilities that they so markedly possessed.

A growth similar to that of modern Germany has rarely been seen before. The progress was as unexpected as it was rapid. It took other nations by surprise, especially when the material results began to make themselves felt in a manner often detrimental to other countries both in their political and commercial aims. A new and rising Empire could hardly expect to be received with great

cordiality by the old-established States of a former era when a powerful and united Germany did not exist. It had by its metamorphosis in 1871 become a prominent European power which had to be reckoned with in the domain of practical politics in a manner not foreseen by the rest of Europe. Having emerged from the chrysalis stage of 1866 to 1871, the right to a leading place in the arena was at once asserted, a position which has since been tenaciously maintained, and even assiduously strengthened on every possible occasion.

Under the former state of affairs the many German States had been too isolated from one another, and hence powerless collectively to advance to fame and fortune. It is true that somewhat loose political ties had bound most of them (and Austria) together since 1815 under the name of the Germanic Confederation, which had replaced the former Confederation of the Rhine established by Napoleon in 1806. But nevertheless—in spite of this partial political alliance, and of the even more important voluntary co-operation, involved in the formation of the ‘Zollverein,’ which was

gradually extended so as to include nearly all the States of Germany by 1854—the community of aims and interests was otherwise very limited until after the conclusion of the war between Prussia and Austria in 1866 over the Schleswig-Holstein Duchies, the direct object of which was the exclusion of the latter country from all participation in German affairs. The Constitution of the North German Confederation established in that year, and in which Austria and the South German States were not included, contained, besides clauses providing for a closer political and especially military union, provisions for a uniform regulation of matters relating to commerce, tariffs, and taxation generally in the extensive German territories which were then really welded together in a far more effective manner than before, both politically and commercially. This amalgamation of the mutual interests of the nation was carried a step further by the creation of the German Empire in 1871 and by its then remodelled Constitution. Since that time many important measures have, one by one, been passed by the Imperial ‘Reichstag’ tending to bring the numerous

German States gradually under a uniform system of laws affecting most spheres of life. By such means a process of crystallisation is ever going on by which all the still unconsolidated elements of the Empire are being merged into one compact whole.

The Emperor William I., at the opening of the first German 'Reichstag' in 1871, stated in impressive words that the objects striven for since the days of his ancestors were attained—namely, German unity, the security of frontiers, and the independent right to national development. It was he who put the final and indispensable touch to the German 'Fatherland' by uniting in indissoluble bonds the German races unhappily divided for so many centuries by adverse circumstances. The thirty years of uninterrupted peace that have now passed away have given ample opportunity for a tranquil expansion of commerce and industries. Art and science have also flourished during this peaceful period.

The outer framework of the Empire having been created, the next step was to secure its internal solidity by durable masonry-work.

6 THE GERMAN EMPIRE OF TO-DAY

Political, economical, and social questions have all had to be carefully considered from every point of view by the architects, who have had no easy task. The Empire, in its embryo state, was faced by many difficulties, which have been met with singular vigour and determination by the statesmen of the day, and with such success that numbers of what at times seemed to be insuperable difficulties have finally been overcome. The result has been a wonderful growth in all directions. Germany has now become not only a political power of the first magnitude, but also a commercial power of the first rank. This dual position of political and commercial greatness combines the desiderata of strength indispensable for the maintenance and expansion of a modern Great Power.

One advantage which has helped to rapidly strengthen the position of the German Empire has undoubtedly been the fact that in many respects it has been untrammelled by hampering traditions in its efforts to become a 'World Power.' The effect of this freedom from restricted action has had its influence on all branches of development. In the German

Empire, as a modern State, there has perhaps been less than elsewhere of that 'red-tape' bureaucratic intractability which so often results in an unfortunate paralysation of all active initiative. Since its foundation one may say that, whatever may have been the object aimed at by the Imperial Government or by private persons, the most practical and direct way to that end, regardless possibly of all hitherto recognised modes of procedure, has been followed. Moreover, in every sphere of life and in every form of occupation a truly 'scientific method' seems to have been universally adopted. The people have, frankly and without prejudice, followed the best of existing methods and processes, and have often even improved upon them in the light of the most recent research by men of all countries. The many 'minutiæ' connected with the adoption of any profession, business, or calling whatever have received an extraordinary amount of attention; so that the result, be the object what it may, has been about as perfect as human foresight and study could make it. Herein lies the secret of so many of the successes of the Germans in the world:

8 THE GERMAN EMPIRE OF TO-DAY

they also owe much to their characteristic thoroughness. In the opinion of many competent persons, at least a portion of their progress must be ascribed to the spirit of discipline so early infused into the German people by compulsory service in the army. They maintain that it has had a deep and beneficial influence on all spheres of national life, not excepting industrial and commercial pursuits, which far outweighs in any profession or trade the personal loss of time involved by service with the colours. State and private enterprise have worked hand in hand throughout and have materially aided one another in bringing about the present conjuncture. Bismarck, after concluding his immense political work of creating and then consolidating the new Empire, set to work to prepare the way for a prosperous commercial future. He was indefatigable in his efforts to promote the means to that end. Events have shown what an excellent groundwork was laid by him and his coadjutors in the Government. They wisely foresaw how much future prosperity would depend upon a proper and suitable education of the masses, wherefore an excel-

lent technical, commercial, and industrial, as well as ordinary, education was thoughtfully provided. The State, on their side, took care to establish various institutions in which the people could acquire every kind of knowledge which was essential for the building up of a progressive and successful nation; and the people, for their part, set themselves to obtain in them the learning provided for all in a cheap and accessible form. The State made it one of its functions to foster commerce and industries; and the people, imbued with the former commercial spirit of the Hanse Towns, applied themselves to the peaceful aims of extending their industrial and commercial resources to an extent that had never taken place before. For years both State and people worked assiduously and patiently for a common end. The reward came in the form of a general prosperity which even surpassed all the expectations of the most enthusiastic patriots of the early days of the Empire. The preparatory work had been laborious and slow, but it had been sure. The State, however, did not stop there, but continued throughout to devote its attention and energies to co-

10 THE GERMAN EMPIRE OF TO-DAY

operating with its people in promoting every deserving enterprise tending to increase national wealth, whether it be in industry, commerce, finance, or shipping. It has been said by Disraeli that 'individuals may form communities, but it is institutions alone that can create a nation.' Nothing could be more characteristic of the rise of the German nation, for the high standard of capacity among all classes is undoubtedly partly due to various admirable State institutions. The material worked upon has also been of a high order; the average individual unit of the nation has profited to the utmost by the care lavished upon him. Hence his personal success in life, and his small but valuable quota to the effective creative forces of the Empire as a whole.

CHAPTER II

OUTLINE OF GERMAN HISTORY UP TO 1871

DURING many hundreds of years, from the tenth century onwards, the German kings had always claimed as a right the Imperial Crown, which dignity often involved them in wars in no way connected with their German possessions. Gradually, however, the imperial power declined ; and by the year 1648, when the Peace of Westphalia was concluded, which terminated the 'Thirty Years' War and gave Alsace to France and Pomerania to Sweden, the Emperor had few rights left, and in time came to be merely a nominal Head of the State. That treaty considerably diminished the territories of the Empire, and immensely increased the growing independence of the many German princes and rulers. Germany from this time onwards consisted of numerous and practically independent sovereign States, whose power

steadily augmented as years went on to the detriment of the imperial authority. The final fall of the German Empire was brought about by a variety of causes. Perhaps the most important was the too great dominion acquired by certain States, especially Prussia. The executive power was also weak, and the means of effecting legislation were defective. Another source of considerable weakness was the unfortunate recurrence of wars sometimes waged by parts of the Empire against the Emperor. And, finally, even alliances and other important arrangements were independently concluded by some of them with foreign countries. They were occasionally not only at variance with, but also directly opposed to, the imperial interests. The independent action of the Kingdom of Prussia was remarkably aggressive; and it even went so far in 1795 as to conclude a separate peace with France on behalf of itself and of Northern Germany, when the war was being carried on by the German Empire as a whole in combination with Prussia and Austria.

By the Peace of Lunéville in 1801 the French obtained the Rhine as a boundary; and

the German princes, who were thus dispossessed of their lands, were given properties elsewhere in compensation. Great numbers of the free towns of Germany were then abolished, leaving only Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck, Frankfort, Augsburg, and Nuremberg with their former rights intact. Through the want of united action the territories of the Empire were now much broken up, and many of them consequently came under foreign rule. Napoleon Buonaparte even seized Hanover in 1803 without meeting with any material resistance, for Prussia merely protested and declined to take any active part against him. In 1805, however, Austria, Russia, and Great Britain, helped by Sweden, concluded an alliance and marched against France; whereupon, with a singular want of patriotic feeling, the South German States of Bavaria, Baden, and Wurtemberg joined the French armies. Napoleon nevertheless advanced eastwards and entered Vienna. A few days afterwards he fought the successful battle of Austerlitz. By the Peace of Presburg, in December of that year, the Tyrol and the Vorarlberg were transferred to Bavaria, and some Austrian territories went

14 THE GERMAN EMPIRE OF TO-DAY

to Wurtemberg and Baden. The Electors of the two former countries were created Kings by the French Emperor, and Baden became a Grand-Duchy. It was also then provided that these three allies of France should enjoy complete sovereignty within their territories in the same manner and to the same extent as the King of Prussia. Hanover also came into the hands of the Prussian Government at this time. Other less important territorial changes took place, and many German Principalities were suppressed.

The final blow to the old Empire in Germany was dealt in 1806, when Napoleon brought about the creation of the Confederation of the Rhine under his protection. It consisted at first of the rulers of Bavaria, Baden, Wurtemberg, Hesse-Darmstadt, the two Nassaus, the Electoral Archchancellor and nine others, who concluded an offensive and defensive alliance with France, and undertook to furnish a considerable army in time of war. Its members separated entirely from the Empire, and arrogated to themselves all independent sovereign rights. In 1806 Napoleon formally announced that he did not any longer

recognise the German Empire, but only the sovereign rights of its rulers individually in each separate State. Thereupon the Emperor Francis II. of Austria resigned the ancient Imperial Crown, and formally freed himself and his successors from all obligations whatever towards the German Empire, at the same time releasing all the rulers of the German States and their subjects from their duties to himself as former Imperial Head of the State. Thus there disappeared from Europe the last direct representative of the Holy Roman Empire: from that date onwards Francis II. was merely Emperor of Austria. Germany was now no longer united as a whole in any form; there remained simply a collection of numerous independent States of varying power and influence, some of which, however, were joined together under the title of the above-mentioned Confederation of the Rhine, and were completely under the control of France. It is to be observed that the German Empire was dissolved, not abolished; so that all the imperial laws, and the grants and privileges conferred by it, remained in force unless suspended under future legislation in each

State, which, from the fact of that dissolution, then obtained the right to deal fully with these matters.

The existence of this Confederation in the South was, however, galling to the Prussian Government, who at last decided to declare war against France, and the disastrous battle of Jena was fought on October 14, 1806, after which Napoleon entered Berlin. This defeat effectually stopped their efforts to establish a rival German Confederation in the North. The remaining Prussian army then joined the Russian forces, and they made common cause against France: but both were defeated in 1807. By the Peace of Tilsit, which followed, the Kingdom of Prussia lost all the country between the Rhine and the Elbe, besides Hesse-Cassel, Brunswick, and a portion of Hanover, which territories were made into the Kingdom of Westphalia under Jerome, Napoleon's brother. The Prussians had also to give up their Polish possessions, which were handed over to the Elector of Saxony, who was created a king in return for services rendered. The Confederation of the Rhine grew in size and strength. It soon comprised all Germany

except Prussia, Swedish Pomerania, Holstein-Lauenburg, and the three Hanse Towns of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck. Austria was not included within its scope. As a result of the war of 1809 between Austria and France, Bavaria obtained Salzburg, while Saxony received part of Galicia. In 1810 the above-mentioned free towns were actually annexed to France by Napoleon, as well as all the northern parts of Germany.

But in 1813, after the disastrous retreat of the French from Russia, came the long-sought opportunity of Prussia. King Frederick William allied himself with the Emperor of Russia, and then began a determined struggle with Napoleon. Most of the German States joined the allies, as did Austria and Sweden soon afterwards. In October the great battle of Leipzig was fought, after which the French, having been defeated, retired into France. With that defeat the power of Napoleon vanished from German soil, and he lost all his former allies in that country. The Confederation of the Rhine was dissolved; but certain acts accomplished during its existence continued to be valid, such as the position of

certain States mediatised by its authority. The Kingdom of Westphalia disappeared altogether. The allies then carried the war into France and entered Paris. Napoleon, having abdicated, was exiled to the island of Elba. By the Peace of Paris in 1814 Germany re-entered into possession of all the territories which had been lost since 1792. It was then provided that its States should be quite independent individually, but that they should be united by a federative bond. This idea was carried out in the Act which afterwards brought the Germanic Confederation into existence in 1815, when its position internationally was secured by the Congress of Vienna. This Congress met in 1814. It was composed of most of the German rulers or their representatives, of the Emperors of Austria and Russia, and of delegates from almost all European sovereigns. No final settlement of Europe had been arrived at when the news came that Napoleon had left Elba and was marching through France. The Congress declared him to be an outlaw; and a new alliance of the powers was organised against him, which ended in his defeat at the

Battle of Waterloo in June 1815. The allies then re-entered Paris, and the second Peace of Paris accorded Germany a slightly better frontier than before. The Congress of Vienna returned to Prussia nearly all the territories lost by the Treaty of Tilsit in 1807, and also gave her Swedish Pomerania, the northern portion of Saxony, the Grand Duchy of Posen, Westphalia and Berg, and the country on the Rhine between Aix-la-Chapelle and Mayence. Hanover was made into a kingdom, and Bavaria obtained the Upper Rhenish Palatinate as well as Wurzburg and Aschaffenburg.

As no restoration of the old Empire was possible, owing to the rivalry of Prussia and Austria and to the opposition of some German States, the Congress of Vienna created the Germanic Federation, to which thirty-nine States eventually belonged, inclusive of the three Hanse Towns and of the free town of Frankfort. It was an international Confederation consisting of German Sovereign States and of the free towns, formed for the due maintenance of their integrity, the prime object being the security of Germany as a whole both at home and abroad. It was, by

its own declarations, indissoluble in character. In the matter of internal relations, it formed a community of States perfectly independent of each other; but as regards external relations it constituted a composite power with political unity, able to deal with affairs common to the interests of them all. A Diet, really a Council of Envoys from every State, was to sit at Frankfort, and it was to be presided over by the Austrian representative. The necessary expenditure for this arrangement was to be defrayed by the members of the Confederation jointly in the form of 'matricular contributions,' or quotas due by each State to the common cost of maintenance. Internationally, the Germanic Confederation enjoyed and exercised all rights in exactly the same way as any other independent European power. An important provision of the Act of Confederation was that constitutional government should be established everywhere, a promise that was generally disregarded, though eventually some concessions in that direction were granted by a few States. There was much dissatisfaction on all sides with the form of the Confederation, and the desire for

a more complete unity began to spread. The people were also unanimous in wishing to see some kind of constitutional government carried out; but, owing to the determined opposition of the Diet and of the local Governments, little was accomplished until the revolutions of 1848. Meanwhile there ensued a long period of repressive measures, including a strict censorship of the Press and prohibitions to hold political meetings. There were, however, risings in some places in consequence of the effect produced by the French Revolution of 1830 on the German people, which ended in a form of Constitution being granted in Hanover, Saxony, and two other States. But the most important event of this long period from 1815 to 1848 was perhaps the gradual development of the idea of a system of commercial unity for customs purposes; and in the year 1828 the nucleus of the future great 'Zollverein' was established by Prussia, which superseded other unions of a similar nature, and eventually comprised all Germany.

The French Revolution of 1848 had far-reaching results in Germany, where there was

still widespread dissatisfaction at the existing forms of Government. Fired by a greater desire than ever for the creation of a really united Germany and animated by the conviction of the necessity of administrative reform, the angry people could no longer be kept in check. They rose not only in Prussia and in many of the smaller States, but also in Austria, and boldly formulated their demands. After some bloodshed, the King of Prussia undertook to establish a constitutional government and to call together a Prussian National Assembly, which afterwards met but accomplished nothing. And it was not until 1850 that a form of constitutional government was really set up. In many of the other States, however, more liberal measures were adopted at this time. The Diet, recognising the force of the national movement, decided to call upon the various Governments and the German people to work together in order to place Germany on the footing that she ought to occupy among European nations. The necessity of a reform of the Constitution of the Confederation was acknowledged, the censorship of the Press was abolished, and seven-

teen special representatives of the German States met at Frankfort to draw up a new Constitution. But meanwhile at Liberal meetings in the South the agitation for the calling together of a National Assembly for the whole of Germany was gaining irresistible force, which resulted in a Commission being appointed to deal with that question. Its members then summoned to Frankfort some 600 representative people from most of the German States, known in history as the '*Vorparlament*,' or Provisional Parliament, which, in its turn, decided to call together on the basis of general suffrage a Constituent National Assembly. The Diet of the Confederation had the tact to work in agreement with this Parliament, and arranged that the National Assembly should meet at Frankfort in May 1848, the special work assigned to it being the drawing up of the future Constitution of Germany. A central Government was then appointed under Archduke John of Austria, and the Diet handed over its former authority to that newly constituted body. The National Assembly drew up a charter of the rights of the people; and by 1849 there

was voted a new Constitution which established a German Empire in which the head of the State should be hereditary. The Imperial Crown, with the Constitution attached to it, was offered to Friedrich Wilhelm IV. of Prussia, but in the original instead of in the modified form, which had not been agreed to by all the States. He consequently refused to accept it. The subsequent attempt of the National Assembly to force this Constitution on the nation failed: and Austria, Prussia, and many other States withdrew their representatives. Others soon did likewise: and the remnant of that great Assembly was eventually forcibly dispersed without having accomplished any tangible results.

The rivalry between Prussia and Austria was soon brought into far greater prominence by the events of the next few years, when the 'Alliance of the Three Kings' between the kingdoms of Prussia, Saxony, and Hanover was formed with a Constitution by which the Prussian King was recognised as head of the new union, in which he was to govern with the aid of a Council of Princes. The other German States, except Austria, were then

called upon to join it. Most of them did so, and a national parliament met at Erfurt in 1849, Saxony, however, then retiring from the alliance. But the Austrian Government, having by that time overcome the serious revolution of 1848 in Hungary and having also suppressed the risings in other parts of the Empire, promptly took measures to frustrate the attempt of the Prussian Government to wrest from her the leadership in Germany; and in 1850, in her capacity as president of the Diet, she re-assembled at Frankfort the dispersed representatives of the Germanic Confederation in order to rehabilitate it afresh. There were thus two totally opposed organisations under the rival powers in open hostility to one another, a circumstance that almost led to war. But finally Prussia gave way, and the former Constitution of 1815 was restored and accepted by all parties, and the Diet at Frankfort resumed its sittings, which had been suspended during the years of these revolutionary movements. Thus the great attempt to unite the German people by closer ties failed signally in the end, although it had promised so well in the beginning. The

national feeling that a unity of a better kind must be effected grew steadily, though parties differed as to whether Prussia should dominate to the exclusion of Austria, or whether the latter power should be included, as regards her German territories, in any future closer union. The movement in that direction received great encouragement from the fact of the partial unification of Italy in 1859. But the power of the Germanic Confederation as a whole sank steadily, while the might of Prussia continually increased, and found a solid foundation to build upon in the considerable economic development then taking place in her territories, which continually raised her real strength and capabilities for the final struggle for supremacy with Austria which must infallibly ensue some day.

In 1861 King William I. ascended the Prussian throne. He was essentially a soldier, and, in spite of the many difficulties that he encountered in his military reforms under the Constitution and in other ways, he was indefatigable in remodelling and strengthening the whole army, thus bringing its effective fighting capacities to a high level. In the following

year he named Bismarck to the Foreign Office and also made him Prime Minister. That great man then assumed the reins of government, which he retained unintermittently until 1890. During these twenty-nine years he may be said to have made Germany what it is to-day, the leading power on the Continent of Europe. He had always resented the high hand taken by the Austrian Government in political affairs, and he successfully resisted her pretensions in his energetic defence of all rights peculiarly German in character. A meeting of the German princes, called together by Austria at Frankfort in 1863, with the object of effecting a reform of the Constitution, failed because Prussia refused to have anything to do with it. In that year the complicated question of the inheritance of the Schleswig-Holstein Duchies arose, which resulted in Prussia and Austria marching against Denmark, which country, in 1864, had to resign all claim to them and to the Duchy of Lauenburg. The Prussian and Austrian armies then jointly occupied those territories ; and eventually the former stayed in Schleswig and the latter in Holstein, Lauenburg passing to

the Prussian Government for a certain sum of money paid to the Austrian Government. As no peaceful solution to the difficulties of the rival powers in settling the ultimate ownership of these Duchies could be found, war became inevitable. Italy allied herself with Prussia in the coming struggle on the condition that she should regain from Austria the lost province of Venice before the termination of the campaign. In June 1866 the war began, and the Austrian troops withdrew from Holstein. In the Confederate Diet the Austrian representative maintained that the war of one member of the Germanic Confederation on another was not permissible in order to decide disputes which, under the Constitution, must be brought before the Diet itself for settlement; and he called upon all the other members to enforce this principle by marching their armies against Prussia. Thereupon the Prussian representative announced that his Government did not any longer recognise the existence of the Germanic Confederation, and that a new one would be founded by the Prussian Government with an improved Constitution which should

correspond to the requirements of the times. The other States were invited to join that new Confederation in which Prussia would continue to maintain the main principles on which it had hitherto rested. The Prussian Government represented that it was the duty of the States of Germany to find a suitable solution to the question of bringing about a proper unification of the German nation.

Saxony and many of the smaller States sided with Austria in this final contest for supremacy in Germany. The Prussians marched into Saxony and then into Bohemia, where the battle of Königgrätz was fought. The Austrians having been utterly routed, the Prussian army then advanced to Vienna. The Confederate troops were also defeated, and the Diet retired from Frankfort to Augsburg, only to be dispersed soon afterwards. The preliminaries of peace, drawn up at Nikolsburg, and the Peace of Prague terminated the war, which had only lasted six weeks. The Emperor of Austria had to recognise the dissolution of the former Germanic Confederation and agreed to a new formation of Germany from which Austria should be excluded, as

also to the closer unification of States which Prussia was about to establish north of the Maine. He at the same time consented to the organisation of a union of the countries lying to the south of that line, whose relations to the northern group would be agreed upon later. The other Southern German States which had fought on the Austrian side, but which still retained their independence after the conclusion of peace, also recognised the dissolution of the Germanic Confederation. Four of them—Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt—executed a secret agreement with the Prussian Government, which was later on of importance in the war with France in 1870. They concluded a close defensive and offensive alliance, and undertook, in case of war, to place their armies under the command of the King of Prussia. By the Treaty of Peace the Emperor of Austria also gave up all acquired rights to Schleswig-Holstein, which were then joined to Prussia on the condition that Northern Schleswig should be surrendered to Denmark if the people ever wished it and gave expression to that desire in the form of a free vote of the population—a proviso afterwards formally re-

linquished by Austria in 1878. The territories of Hanover, Nassau, Hesse-Cassel, and Frankfort were at this time annexed to the Prussian kingdom on account of the hostile attitude that they had assumed during the war. The dissolution of the Germanic Confederation was publicly recognised by all European Powers in the Treaty of London of May 11, 1867, and the steps taken to reorganise Germany were also duly sanctioned by them. Briefly, the principles of the new Confederation were as follows. Prussia was to preside and represent the Confederation abroad, and had the right of declaring war or of making peace, of calling together and of closing the 'Bundesrath' (Federal Council) and the 'Reichstag' (Federal Parliament), which two legislative bodies enacted all laws concerning the common interests of the Confederation, and of carrying out their decisions, by force if necessary. Legislation sanctioned by them was to take precedence of and supersede the local laws of single Confederate States. The subjects of each were to have equal rights with natives in the territories of the others. Prussia was to command the armies, while the

navy was to be a common one, but under the supreme authority of the King of Prussia.

By October 1866 twenty-one German States had joined the Confederation, constituted on the above lines, which are regarded as forming the foundation stone of the later German Empire, for Prussia was specifically empowered to compel obedience in any State which might refuse to carry out its treaty engagements. A North German Parliament, called together early in 1867, sanctioned such a Constitution, which, in order to make it valid and binding upon all the members of the Confederation individually, had to be passed by the local Legislative Bodies in each State. This was a great political achievement: but there was as yet no common system of taxation nor any general codification of the civil laws. At this time, however, the indirect taxes were set aside to form the financial resources of the North German Confederation—in the same way that they now supply the revenues of the Imperial Government—while the direct taxes continued to remain for the sole benefit of the individual Confederate States; and during its short existence from 1866 to 1871 both

Criminal and Commercial Codes were put into force throughout its territories, which were later extended to the German Empire. The North German Confederation, based on entirely fresh agreements uniting the States by much closer ties than before, and embodying the important new principles added by Prussia to the old groundwork, was in no sense the successor of the Germanic Confederation : it was essentially a fresh creation with a different Constitution, out of which was evolved that of the German Empire of 1871. The laws, however, that had been passed during its existence remained in force until altered or abolished by subsequent special legislation. The unification of the still independent Southern States with the North German Confederation was initiated in 1867 by the Customs Union Treaty, which replaced the old 'Zollverein' arrangements that had been annulled by the war. Their adhesion to the new Prussian customs system, in which the Prussian Government had complete control and the right of veto, was essential in their own interests, as otherwise they might have been left in an isolated position• damaging to their

financial requirements. Under that treaty a joint Customs Parliament and Federal Council, comprising delegates from all the German States, were established in 1868, and the laws passed by them were, therefore, binding on the whole of Germany. This commercial amalgamation of the North and South culminated in the political unity of 1871, when the fusion became complete.

King William I. almost came to war with the French Emperor in 1866 and 1867 owing, firstly, to the demands of the French Government for a cession of German territory to compensate France for Prussia's aggrandisement, resulting from her successful campaign against Austria, and, secondly, to their attempt to secure Luxemburg, formerly part of the Germanic Confederation, by purchase from the Dutch Government. But in the latter year the secret offensive and defensive agreement between Prussia and the Southern German States was made known, revealing the greatly increased military strength acquired under it by the Prussian Government, which acted as a deterrent to the French pretensions. Finally, a conference met which converted the Duchy

of Luxemburg into a permanent neutral State under the guarantee of the European powers. But a fresh cause of dispute between the two countries occurred in 1870 over the succession to the Spanish crown, when the hereditary Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern, with the approval of the King of Prussia, became a candidate for the throne. As Napoleon III. strongly objected to this step, the Prince withdrew his name. But the French Emperor, being determined to bring on a war to humble Prussia and to uphold the waning supremacy of France, the further promise was then exacted by him that a Hohenzollern Prince should not ever again come forward as a candidate, a request promptly refused by King William I., who also declined to receive the French Ambassador. The German army was mobilised at once, and Napoleon III. declared war on July 23, 1870. This announcement was enthusiastically received by all Germans, and the King of Prussia proclaimed that the war would procure 'the liberty and unity of Germany.' The Southern States, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt, held loyally to their 1866 agreement, much to the disappointment of the

French Government, who had hoped at least for their neutrality. They placed their armies at the disposal of the King of Prussia for the war with France, during which they were led by the Prussian Crown Prince. King William had command of the whole army, which, aided by the successful strategy of General von Moltke, rapidly invaded France. At the beginning of the war the German troops consisted of 780,733 men at the front and of 402,666 employed at home. Altogether 42,420 officers (including army doctors) and 1,451,992 men took part up to the end of the campaign. The victorious battles of Wörth, Saarbrücken, Mars-le-Tour, and Gravelotte were fought, after which part of the French armies were shut up in Metz under Bazaine. Meanwhile MacMahon with the rest of the army attempted to march to the relief of that place, but, the plan having failed, they were compelled by the Germans to retire to Sedan, and capitulated on September 2 after a severe battle on the previous day. The French Emperor surrendered to the King of Prussia, together with all the troops in that fortress. He was conveyed, a prisoner, to the castle of Wilhelms-

höhe at Cassel, where he remained until peace was concluded at Versailles. Having been deposed by the French nation, he then went to England, where he lived in retirement until his death in 1873. As the French Government refused after Sedan to accept the German terms of peace, which included the cession of Alsace-Lorraine, the war went on; and the Republic that was then proclaimed in succession to the French Empire maintained a similar attitude. The Government of the National Defence announced that they would be willing to pay any money indemnity, but that they would not cede any territory or fortresses. The German armies then marched on Paris, which they surrounded. The invested fortress of Strasburg surrendered soon afterwards, as did the town of Metz some months later. The siege of Paris, however, lasted until January 28, 1871, when negotiations were opened by the French for peace, which was concluded a month later on the basis of the surrender of the Province of Alsace, except the fortress of Belfort, and of the greater part of the Province of Lorraine, in addition to which a war indemnity of 200,000,000*l.* was to be paid.

These terms were duly accepted by the French National Assembly ; and the final Treaty of Frankfort, of May 10, 1871, settled all the details of the peace.

Meanwhile, during the progress of the war, most important events had been taking place tending to the consolidation of all Germany into a really united whole. In September 1870 the Grand Duchy of Baden asked to be received into the North German Confederation. Wurtemberg, Bavaria, and Hesse-Darmstadt followed suit. Treaties in this sense were made between those States and Prussia, and they were admitted as members of the North German Confederation, which was then merged into the larger 'German Confederation,' as comprising both the Northern and Southern States. The next step was taken by the King of Bavaria, who proposed that the King of Prussia, President of the new Confederation, should be elevated to the position of German Emperor. This proposal was submitted to the Confederate Parliament by the Federal Council ; and, as all the German States had approved this step, it was accepted with acclamation. William I. was, therefore, proclaimed

German Emperor in a brilliant assembly at Versailles on January 18, 1871. Thus it came about that national unity was at last attained in Germany after the vicissitudes of many years of disappointing efforts in that direction.

CHAPTER III

NATIONAL PROGRESS SINCE 1871

THE re-establishment of the German Empire in 1871, on the conclusion of the successful war with France, was an event which fulfilled the long-deferred aspirations of the German people. That step at last identified in a permanent manner the true interests of the North and South, so long opposed to one another, and placed both under a supreme and vigorous Government able to direct the energies of all to promoting national progress. The amalgamation of the Southern States of Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt with the former North German Confederation meant a much greater centralisation of power in the hands of the Government and their further fusion under the name of an Empire, supported by a well-trained, experienced, and immense army, at once placed Germany among the

leading powers in Europe. The Germanic Confederation had been merely a political association of perfectly independent States, each still retaining its rights of sovereignty intact. In the Constitution of the North German Confederation, on the other hand, there had been a restriction of many such rights ; and all the States were, moreover, subject in certain respects to a strong central authority, as well as to the various common laws passed by the Confederate Government and the national legislative bodies. With the German Empire there came no new principles of association, but merely a considerable further extension of the powers of the supreme Government and, consequently, a marked diminution of the independent rights of the various sovereigns and rulers of the Federated States. The readjustment of their relations is explained below.

This new enlarged assemblage of twenty-five States contracted a permanent union, under the name of the ‘ German Empire,’ ‘ for the protection of the unified territories and of the rights obtaining therein, as also for the purpose of fostering the welfare of the German people.’

Such was the programme laid down in the Preamble to the Constitution of 1871, a national document to which the nation owes much of its present prosperity, and which has in the short space of thirty years had a far greater effect on the material progress of the people than was ever expected at that time. A special subsequent law also incorporated the French Provinces of Alsace-Lorraine as a '*Reichsland*,' which then came under imperial rule but subject to special laws and administered by a '*Statthalter*' named by the Emperor. The only later territorial addition in Europe has been the island of Heligoland, obtained in 1890 by virtue of a treaty with the British Government, who ceded it in return for German concessions in Africa. The Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, having been made a neutral State in 1867, does not fall within the limits of the present Empire, but it still continues to form part of the German Customs Union.

To meet the requirements of the new Empire it became desirable to draft the Constitution afresh in a compact form, in which there should be embodied the principles of the

former Constitution of the North German Confederation, as also the stipulations of the treaties made recently with the South German States. This was done, and certain changes and improvements were also introduced which had become necessary from the still closer political and economic union then finally attained in the process of raising Germany to the rank of an Empire. The scope of the new Constitution was thus considerably extended, though drawn up on much the same lines as before. Perhaps the most important of all its memorable provisions was the proviso that 'imperial laws take precedence over those of each separate State.' In this little sentence lay the germ of future greatness; for, under its authority, it has been possible to effect a gradual amalgamation into one harmonious whole of many of the formerly conflicting laws and regulations dealing with all manner of subjects, by which process the power of the Federated States individually is being slowly reduced, while, at the same time, that of the Imperial Government correspondingly increases, under successive imperial laws, by the growing centralisation of authority in their

hands regarding most of the more important matters of internal administration.

The former barriers between State and State, which had grievously interfered with national development, were broken down by the following provisions, all of which had already been inserted in the Constitution of the North German Confederation. In any one State of the Empire the subjects of every other State were to enjoy equal rights with its subjects in respect of residence, trading facilities, election to public offices, and in the attainment of all civil and other rights. The Imperial Government acquired jurisdiction over a great many undertakings of national concern now properly falling under their direct control, such as the right to legislate with respect to customs matters and commerce, as also concerning the taxes to be raised for imperial purposes, the management of all military matters (limited chiefly as regards Bavaria, Saxony, and Wurtemberg), the command of the navy, the power of drawing up common commercial and penal codes (amended, in the case of the former, in 1873, to include all civil rights), including judicial procedure,

the regulation of patents, copyright, weights, measures, coinage, issue of paper-money, bank matters generally, and questions of domicile, residence, and civil rights (except in some instances in the Kingdom of Bavaria), the direction of posts and telegraphs (with reservations in Bavaria and Wurtemberg), as well as of medicinal and veterinary police business, the control of all political societies, the press, emigration and colonisation, and, finally, the supervision of industries and commerce, including matters of insurance. In addition there were provisions especially affecting the future development of the Empire's trade. To the Imperial Government were entrusted : 'The organisation of a common protection of commerce abroad, of German shipping, and of its flag on the high seas, the establishment of a joint consular representation of the Empire, the supervision over the railway systems, the construction of roads and waterways in the interests of national defence and of general traffic, and the control over the condition and navigation of the common waterways, as also over all dues levied on the rivers and other waters.' The eventual im-

portance of these points is fully dealt with in the Chapter on 'Traffic Policy.' Moreover, all Germans abroad were to have an equal claim to the protection of the Empire.

The imperial power is wielded by all the sovereign States jointly, through the instrumentality of the Emperor, and the two legislative bodies, consisting respectively of the representatives of the Federated Governments and of those of the German people in the whole of the Empire. They are called the 'Bundesrath,' or Federal Council, and the 'Reichstag,' or Imperial Parliament. For the passing of laws the consent and approval of both are necessary, and this consists in the attainment of a mere majority. Such imperial laws, however, only become binding on publication by the Emperor. The 'Bundesrath' possesses altogether fifty-eight votes belonging to the sovereigns and rulers of German States, of which seventeen fall to Prussia, which kingdom, however, by virtue of the 1887 Treaty, under which it administers the principality of Waldeck, has one other vote, making, therefore, eighteen in all. The remaining ones are thus distributed: six to

Bavaria, four to Saxony, four to Wurtemberg, three each to Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt, two each to Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Brunswick, and one each to the remaining States. In cases where there is a plurality of votes belonging to a country, as many representatives *can* be appointed as there are votes. These, however, must be given collectively either for or against the subject under discussion. There are not, therefore, necessarily fifty-eight different representatives. With regard to Alsace-Lorraine, there is, of course, no direct representation in the Federal Council, which is essentially an assemblage of the representatives of German sovereigns, for that '*Reichsland*' is merely an imperial province, and no sovereign State. Its '*Statthalter*' can, however, send Commissioners to the '*Bundesrath*' whenever affairs particularly affecting those provinces are discussed; and they have the right of taking part in all deliberations, but have no power of voting. All members of this council can appear in the '*Reichstag*,' and speak there on matters concerning their respective Governments, even when their views have not been accepted by a

majority of votes in the 'Bundesrath.' They enjoy, personally and for their suites, diplomatic privileges. The States of Bavaria, Saxony, Wurtemberg, Baden, Hesse-Darmstadt, Brunswick, Mecklenburg, and the three Hanse Towns jointly have Legations at Berlin. Their chiefs are usually, in addition to being Envoys accredited to the Prussian Court, also the representatives of their sovereigns in the Federal Council. Its President is the Imperial Chancellor, whom the Emperor names, and who is, technically, responsible for all imperial laws promulgated, and for such orders as are issued by the Emperor in the name of the Empire, which must be countersigned by him or his representative to be valid. Decisions are, usually, taken by a simple majority of voices, the President having the casting vote. There are, however, exceptions to this rule. When divergent views are held by its members as to military, naval, and certain inter-State taxation matters, the votes of Prussia, as presiding over the Federation, are decisive. Moreover, if it be a question of altering the Constitution, which can always be effected by the process

of ordinary imperial legislation, a special clause provides that it cannot be done if there are recorded against it in the 'Bundesrath' the fixed number of 14 votes.

The 'Reichstag' is elected by universal suffrage under ballot. The number of members is 397, based, in the proportion of one to every 100,000 inhabitants, on the census returns of 1866. This includes those allotted in 1873 to the '*Reichsland*,' since which date no alteration has been made. Of this total 235 belong to Prussia, 48 to Bavaria, 23 to Saxony, 17 to Wurtemberg, 15 to the provinces of Alsace-Lorraine, and 14 to Baden. They vote by absolute majority ; and a quorum is constituted 'by the presence of the majority of the number of the members, as fixed by law,' and means, therefore, 199 deputies. They are unpaid, although resolutions have been passed on several occasions in favour of salaries to ensure a better attendance, which in late years appears to have decreased in a manner detrimental to the course of public business by the often recurring impossibility of securing a quorum even for some important measures. But the 'Bundesrath' has never yet consented to take

the constitutional steps that would be necessary to adopt the proposed innovation, for the 1871 Constitution expressly states that they are to receive no payment or remuneration for their services. Since 1874, however, an exception has been made by a special law allowing them the privilege of a free railway ticket, on all railways whether State or private, to and from Berlin during each session and for the space of one week before its commencement and after its termination. The Constitution fixed the duration of the legislative period at three years in 1871, but it was altered to five in 1888.

To understand the true position of Germany one must never overlook the fact that the Empire still consists of a conglomeration of German States, independent in many respects, but which for the furtherance of their common interests have agreed to transfer various kinds of rights to the Empire, and, by mutual consent, they acknowledge the Crown of Prussia as presiding over their now united States. Their sovereigns have, further, conferred upon the King of Prussia, in his capacity as President of this Federation, the title of 'German Emperor,' which is hereditary

and which carries with it certain high public functions. He represents the Empire in all international matters, and makes peace and war in its name. In order to declare war the consent of the 'Bundesrath' is required unless for purely defensive purposes. He concludes treaties with foreign powers, and sends and receives Ambassadors and Ministers. In so far, however, as these treaties deal with matters falling within the limits of imperial legislation, the assent of the Federal Council is necessary for their conclusion and the approval of the 'Reichstag' is requisite for their validity.

It has always to be remembered, in speaking of Germany, that all the Federated States individually, though collectively forming the German Empire, have their own separate legislatures, consisting usually of two Chambers, which in Prussia are called the 'Herrenhaus,' or House of Lords, and the 'Abgeordnetenhaus,' or House of Deputies. All matters not falling within the jurisdiction of the Imperial Government by the terms of the Constitution are entirely managed by them. Moreover, the Federated Governments have each their own separate budgets (except as regards cer-

tain branches of expenditure common to all for imperial purposes), public debts, and other financial paraphernalia. There is nothing in the Constitution to prevent each State from sending and receiving diplomatic agents ; but, in practice, it is only the larger ones that avail themselves of this right except in respect of their Legations in other German States within the Empire. Bavaria, Saxony, Wurtemberg, Hesse-Darmstadt, and Baden have, however, foreign diplomatic representatives permanently in their capitals ; and all the other sovereign States have also foreign Envoys accredited to them, who, however, combine those duties with those of a similar nature at the above-mentioned larger German posts where they reside. The kingdoms of Bavaria and Saxony have several diplomatic missions in European countries.

Certain so-called ‘Reserved Rights’ (*Reservatrechte*) were, however, still retained by some of the Southern German States under the new Constitution and the treaties previously made with them. They chiefly concern Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Baden. In all these countries the separate right of

taxing beer was maintained, independently of imperial legislation, certain rights with regard to alcohol being also retained (since, however, given up by them) ; and the former two kept their own post office systems and, therefore, their particular postage stamps. In the case of Wurtemberg, however, the right to use special marks, denoting postal values of all kinds, is about to lapse under a recent agreement with the Imperial Government. The kingdoms of Bavaria and Wurtemberg have also certain other rights, the most important of which is that the former is not bound to conform to the uniform imperial regulations regarding railways, except in a few cases which directly concern the defences of the Empire. They are both also privileged in matters dealing with Poor Relief. All three States, as well as Saxony, have further privileges in military matters which are dealt with in the Chapter on the ' Army and Navy.' In all other respects, however, and for all practical purposes, the unity of Germany, which meant so much to the nation at large, was satisfactorily accomplished, and opened up the way for a brilliant future.

In now reviewing shortly, up to 1900, the general national development which followed these events it is not possible to give more than a few indications of the main lines of expansion. Financial and colonial questions during this period are dealt with separately in later chapters, as are also, for the whole of the nineteenth century, the important subjects of commercial and traffic policy, national education, the growth of the army, and the rise of the navy. The material and legislative progress only will be touched upon in this book, leaving altogether on one side questions of political and social advancement. At the opening of the twentieth century a really remarkable position has already been acquired by the German nation, not only in Europe but also in the world. In this short interval the chief characteristics, perhaps, of the three decades that have now passed away since the foundation of the Empire have been : in the seventies, consolidation of political power and preparation for future economic development ; in the eighties, actual commercial growth and colonial acquisitions ; in the nineties, extraordinary industrial, commercial, and

maritime expansion; and, throughout the thirty years, a succession of important imperial legislative measures, which have continually drawn more tightly together the already close bonds of union between the various Federated Governments and their respective populations.

The economic position of a country is quite as important as its political situation: the one is involved in the other. The economic unification of the German States was of quite as great importance as the political creation of the German Empire; and they brought in their train the necessity of adopting a real national policy, which involved many deviations from former traditions. The altered circumstances demanded special study, and new laws and administrative methods were required to deal with them. That the situation was, on the whole, very effectually handled by the Imperial Government in the course of succeeding years will be seen from the following sketch of the results of their labours.

A national policy must always be guided chiefly by the direct needs of the population. The necessities of the German people, who are increasing with a rapidity of not less than an

average of 800,000 persons per year, are bound to a great extent to govern that policy, on which fifty-seven million inhabitants of the Empire already depend in 1901. In 1871 they numbered forty-one millions: the fecundity of the German race, therefore, in the latter part of the nineteenth century has far exceeded that of other European powers. How to adequately provide for them and for their prolific increase is a vital question of the future. It has been a source of some anxiety for many years past. It is a consideration that has induced an extension of the former commercial policy and the adoption of a colonial one; for the increasing population can only be supported, within Germany, by a further expansion of industries and commerce, or, outside the frontiers, by settlement in German colonies or in foreign countries. In either case it has meant the gradual growth of a 'world-policy' in the interest of present and future generations, and the passing of various legislative measures with the object of endeavouring to retain as German subjects such persons as have emigrated. For every man so prevented from giving up his nationality, and therefore

from losing his liability to conscription, helps to increase the influence of the Empire, the political power of which must always largely depend on the strength of the army. The Imperial Government also does what it can to keep the descendants of parents who have emigrated as German as possible by actively supporting German schools in foreign countries.

The fusion of the many German States into a united Empire had a far-reaching effect on the possibilities of national development. Before that time the people, as a nation, had had no chance to come to the front commercially, though individual States, notably the Hanse Towns, had expanded their commercial relations with foreign countries to a remarkable extent. The first opportunity of effecting many urgently needed internal reforms, however, came with the economic growth under the 'Zollverein.' During the short existence of the North German Confederation the former hampering restrictions on freedom of movement from one State to another, including 'passes' for travellers, were abolished. Other notable events of that period were the systematic regulation of postal affairs for Germany, the

introduction of a uniform system of metrical weights and measures for all the Confederate territories, and the establishment of Consulates abroad for the '*Bund*.' All these changes were directly beneficial to commerce, especially in the interior, which had previously been stifled by antiquated regulations ; and general inter-State communications were thenceforth greatly facilitated. As a direct consequence of this new freedom of locomotion, laws had to be passed dealing with the question of nationality and the exemption of the subjects of one Confederate State, when residing in another, from liability to 'double taxation'—that is to say, from being taxed in their country of origin as well as in that of their temporary or permanent residence. Important measures were also passed which, for the first time, freed the working population from former obnoxious police and other restrictions. The extent of the advance then made is indicated by the 'Customs Treaty' of 1867, by the establishment of the Customs Parliament in 1868, and by the fact that a supreme court for the Confederation was set up, with jurisdiction over all commercial affairs within its territories. In

the latter year the public gambling tables were closed throughout the country. In 1869 the common commercial code, which had been drawn up between 1857 and 1861, was promulgated for the whole Confederation, it having been already adopted by legislative enactments in many separate States. A criminal law code was also introduced at that time for all the 'North German' territories. In the period from 1870 to 1877 came a further series of important laws dealing respectively with joint stock companies, bankruptcy, authors' rights, trade marks, patents, coinage, banks (especially in making any extension of the issue of bank-notes dependent upon imperial legislation), and further postal reforms. When the Empire was founded in 1871 the laws made by the Government of the North German Confederation were extended to the imperial dominions. A great step was also effected in 1876 in matters of uniform legislation for the Empire by the passing of the law regulating the judicial, criminal, and civil procedure in the law courts. It was under this law that a supreme Court of Appeal for the whole Empire was established at Leipzig, and in it was merged the Supreme

Court for commercial affairs set up by the North German Government. Under certain conditions, appeals lie to it from the highest civil and criminal tribunals of the Federated States. Cases of high treason also come within its jurisdiction. Its judges are proposed by the 'Bundesrath,' and are appointed by the Emperor. These and other laws paved the way for a normal commercial development in the future. As regards the work of attempting to obtain as much uniformity as possible on German railways, full information will be found in the Chapter on 'Traffic Policy.'

The early adoption in 1873 of a gold standard afforded a valuable incentive to trade generally. It was a change that enabled Germans to use their credit facilities to an extent impossible previously, as also to be far more independent of foreign countries in all money matters. In 1880, soon after the announcement was made that tariff protection would be granted to all forms of national production as against the foreigner, Bismarck took over the Prussian Ministry of Commerce. This step gave much pleasure to the mercantile community, who rightly concluded that it

would mean the commencement of important commercial reforms.

The protective tariff introduced by Bismarck in 1879 was on the whole a moderate one, but the duties were high enough to confer a distinct benefit on the products of national industries and agriculture in competing with similar imports from abroad. They were not, however, placed at such a level as to impede the producer's natural activity or to prevent his keeping the cost of production, and all other expenses connected with an energetic competition for the markets of the world, as low as possible. Since that time the Imperial Government have always followed the principle of not only affording a struggling industry 'initial' but also continuous protection afterwards whenever foreign competitors materially threatened its prospects. This assistance has sometimes taken the form of a lowering of the State railway freights paid by those interested in the affected industry. The protective system appears to have been favourable to a rapid expansion of foreign trade. Under it some German manufacturers, more especially those who have formed Associations to keep

the home prices high, have enjoyed the advantage of being able to sell their products in markets abroad at a lower price than at home, the reason being that the heavy duties on similar imported goods enabled them to make a high profit at home on their sales, which permitted of a great reduction in the selling price of the articles sold in foreign countries. The average profit on both, a high one at home and a low one abroad, afforded a sufficient remuneration on the total cost of manufacture of both sets of articles, and the command of the two markets enabled them to produce commodities in larger quantities, and, therefore, at a lower average cost of production, than would have been possible had they only been able to count on the inland sales in Germany. This circumstance has often in certain trades given the German merchant a small indirect benefit in neutral markets in competition with similar products of other countries not manufactured under a protective tariff system. It would, however, appear to be an advantage obtained at the expense of the German consumer at home. But it may be argued that the eventual reduction in cost

of production resulting from the enormously increased output afforded by the addition of the demands of the foreign consumers to those of the home buyers in the end compensates the home consumer for his initial sacrifice by the eventual reduction of the general sale price in Germany also. However this may be, the German protective system has had a considerable effect in assisting portions of the foreign trade of the Empire in different parts of the world. The above-described effect of the protective tariff system has not been an unexpected result ; for as long ago as 1879, when the debate on the introduction of the all-round protective duties took place in the 'Reichstag,' attention was called to the fact that it would enable German goods to be sold more cheaply abroad than at home ; and this foreseen effect was severely criticised by the opponents of the measure as grossly unfair to the German public. Under the shield of this protective system the growth of syndicates in most branches of trade has lately been rapid. They now control the output and price of many articles of consumption, and there appears to be no remedy to their forcing up

the price at home so long as it does not exceed that of an imported similar article after payment of duty. They can often, therefore, afford to sell their goods abroad even under cost price, and thus undersell competitors who do not work under equal conditions. Commercial policy in the nineteenth century forms the subject of a special chapter.

Side by side with an internal expanding market there has grown up a steadily increasing foreign commerce. The economic advance from 1880 to 1894 was chiefly in industries and commerce, and not in agricultural pursuits. The number of persons employed in the two former have greatly increased, and the relative proportion of the third has fallen considerably. The remarkable transposition that has taken place in these three leading occupations of the people during that period is shown by a comparison of the census returns of 1882 with those of 1895. The statistics then collected demonstrate that in the former year out of every thousand inhabitants there were 425 supported by agriculture, 355 by industries, and 100 by commerce ; in the latter year the figures were much smaller for the agricultural

population, namely 357, whereas those for industrial and commercial occupations had risen respectively to 391 and 115. It has been said that, on a rough computation, the agricultural population of the Empire formed some 60 per cent. of the whole thirty years ago, whereas it now only amounts to about 35 per cent. Such facts need no comment, and mark well the progress of events. It was about 1888, after the incorporation of Bremen and the greater part of the State of Hamburg into the Customs Union, that industries and commerce began to expand with unusual vigour. And from 1894 to 1900 national commerce, under the influence of the great tariff treaties made by the Chancellor, General von Caprivi, increased rapidly, whereas during many years previously there had not been any such marked improvement. In this later period there has been a remarkable growth of general prosperity accompanied by a decided improvement in the standard of living, especially among the middle classes. Evidence of the general improved condition of the nation in recent years is afforded by a consideration of the statistics up to 1900,

showing the larger average deposits in the savings banks, the increased number and value of the life insurances effected, and the yearly greater total of persons taxed as enjoying moderate incomes.

As the trade of the Empire supplies the sinews of the economic resources of the nation, it is indispensable to trace the actual development of German commerce from 1872 to 1900. Unfortunately it cannot be shown accurately by means of statistics, for in the former year Bremen and the greater part of Hamburg, as well as other small portions of territory, were not yet included in the 'Zollverein' returns; and since then there have, for various reasons, been breaks in the continuity of statistics in 1880, 1888, and 1897. Subject, however, to the somewhat disturbing influences of these circumstances, the following figures give a rough idea of the progress made. In 1872 German 'Special Trade' (that is to say, of imports for home consumption and of exports of domestic produce) amounted, after deduction of bullion and specie, to 279,131,000*l.*, or to 163,100,000*l.* for imports and to 116,031,000*l.* for exports. By 1887 the total had risen to

312,000,000*l.*, being 156,235,000*l.* for importation and 155,765,000*l.* for exportation. The figures for 1900 showed a commerce of 518,849,000*l.*, consisting of 288,280,000*l.* for imports and of 230,569,000*l.* for exports. At the close of the present year (1901) there will be some diminution on account of the serious commercial and industrial depression that is now taking place, but which is not likely to impede for any length of time a continued advance, though it will probably be considerably slower than during the exceptionally favourable times of the last few years. It is not expected that the present state of affairs will terminate in a crisis of any kind. German trade, like that of other countries, has already previously passed through periods of depression, but hitherto it seems never to have been quite so seriously affected as has been the case in some of the older industrial nations. With regard to manufactured goods, home-made articles are more and more replacing formerly imported commodities, and there has also been a steady increase of their exportation to all parts of the world. The main part of the large growth in imports consists of

the foreign food-stuffs indispensable for the support of the people, who are, year by year, becoming less and less a self-contained nation. 'The bases on which the Empire's power rests are, primarily, its trade and, in a minor degree, its agricultural resources. It depends, therefore, principally on the state of the national industries and then on the condition of the landed interests. The prosperity of both can be judged by the financial condition of the country in late years.'¹ This subject, therefore, is examined in some detail in a special chapter. The policy of the Imperial Government is to support industrial and agricultural interests equally, so long as such a course is consistent with a due development of the prosperity of the whole nation : but it has proved to be a difficult task.

The present position that Germany has attained of a first-class merchant power has been partly the result of what might be called a scientific organisation of industries and commerce. It is not so much to great or radical changes as to a mass of small improvements

¹ Quoted by permission from No. 2,400 of the *Annual Series, 1900, of Diplomatic and Consular Reports.*

and innovations that the progress is due. No effort has been spared by the German manufacturer to suit in every respect the pocket, taste, and convenience of his customer in all countries of the world. Another factor that has helped the development both of home industries and of foreign trade is the great extension of the principle of association or co-operation among the industrial and commercial classes for every kind of undertaking. The smaller people, who are unable to incur great expense individually, combine for common ends to an extent not practised in many other countries. The 'Export Unions' are instances in point. The effects of 'standardising' goods and of the use of metrical weights and measures have also had a distinct influence in extending foreign trade. No little impetus to foreign commerce has also been given by the systematic subordination of particular interests to those of the nation at large, a course well exemplified by the recent Paris Exhibition, where the numerous exhibits of individual firms were made entirely subservient to the plan, organised by the Imperial Government, of presenting to the outer world one

fine national exhibit of the capabilities of each particular German trade or industry, in which, moreover, only the best manufactures or products of every kind were allowed to appear. This careful arrangement was bound to make a great impression on foreign nations, and no doubt assisted to extend existing markets and to raise the world's opinion of the quality of many German productions. The growth of national wealth has caused the accumulation of much surplus capital, large amounts of which have, in recent years, been invested abroad, resulting in a rapid acquisition of valuable German vested interests in many parts of the world. 'The prosperity of industries and commerce has, indeed, been great hitherto, and may be said to be the direct and joint achievement of the eminently satisfactory condition in Germany of the methods of education, production, and distribution. The success of the Germans in competing with foreign nations, both in industry and trade, must be largely attributed to a distinct superiority in special points under these three heads, although the general economic conditions of the world and long periods of inter-

national peace and amity have also helped them considerably.’¹

‘One of the most remarkable lines of development has been the expansion of maritime interests which are so important to every progressive nation, comprising shipbuilding, carrying power, and “oversea” commerce, with its necessary protection as represented by a navy. Maritime interests and sea power are the natural corollaries of trade interests and industrial power, and they to-day take a leading place in German politics, whereas up to quite recent times they were of secondary importance to politicians, and still less so to the nation at large.’ An excellent indication of their rapid growth is furnished by the Prussian census returns of 1895 and 1900, which show an average increase in population at the chief ports of the Kingdom of Prussia of not less than 15 per cent. during those five years. ‘It is only since 1881 that, moved by national considerations, the Imperial Government decided to foster the growth of shipping, but it was not until 1885 that the first Postal

¹ The extracts on page 70 and the three following pages are quoted by permission from No. 490 *Miscellaneous Series*, 1899, of *Diplomatic and Consular Reports*.

Subsidy Bill was actually passed. Material support to the commercial and colonial aspirations of the Empire was thus afforded. Although the principle then laid down has since been considerably extended in many directions, it is mainly due to the energy of private persons that such a high level of efficiency has been attained, so that, at the present time, the German shipbuilding yards cannot carry out the numerous orders they receive.' Their number, too, is increasing, and the existing ones are continually being extended. The new 'Germania' Yard at Kiel, now being laid out and built by Herr Krupp, is being fitted with all the most modern plant, machinery, and electric appliances; when finished, it will be unequalled in the world as regards its capabilities of building vessels of every kind. It is not only splendid merchant shipping that has been and is being continually constructed, but also first-rate men-of-war. The German Government has not, however, granted direct subsidies to any shipbuilding yards, but the orders to build vessels for the subsidised lines and for the navy have been secured to them. They have merely followed

their usual policy of affording a moderate amount of protection to a young industry in order to enable it to have a fair chance of competing with old-established foreign rivals. 'The only form of direct shipping subsidy is by postal contracts for quick mail services, although it is frankly acknowledged that other important objects are also kept in view, such as the indirect advantages accruing thereby to German commerce, the gain to the Empire by the increase of material for forming an efficient naval reserve, the utilisation of the steamers as cruisers in time of warfare, and the coveted means of favouring home industries. Conformity with Admiralty requirements, the use of German materials and products as far as possible, and the obligatory construction of new vessels in the shipbuilding yards of Germany are some of the principal conditions of contract where such mail subsidies are granted.' No direct payments for the right to use fast vessels as cruisers appear to be made by the Government to any of the steamer companies, even when built on Admiralty lines; but they can always be requisitioned under the law of June 13, 1873, for pur-

poses of warfare. Only two out of the many German lines receive these postal subsidies.

The construction of ships is to some extent assisted indirectly by the granting of exceptionally low railway freights on the State lines for the transport of materials of German origin for shipbuilding, their object being to compete with the products of rival industrial countries. Another form of aid is that specified requisites for the construction and fitting out of ships are admitted duty free, as some of them cannot yet be satisfactorily produced in the country, and to that extent foreign countries benefit at present. But in the course of time they no doubt will be also locally manufactured. A small bounty to some shipping is also indirectly afforded by the low combined through freight rates granted by the State railways from inland places in the Empire, and then by special lines of steamers running to places in East Africa and in the Levant. The advance in shipbuilding of all kinds has been one of the most striking features of recent expansion. The Imperial Government have always taken a keen interest in all matters concerning the development of the mercantile

marine, and they do what they can to assist its growth. The total amount of the imperial shipping subsidies expended on postal services is now 347,500*l.*, distributed thus: to lines running to East Asia, 165,000*l.*; to Australia, 115,000*l.*; and to Africa, 67,000*l.* These sums are shared between the North German Lloyd and the East African Steamer Companies.

The German mercantile marine is now the second in the world, with a total gross registered tonnage of 3,009,225 (January 1, 1901), of which 2,463,416 belong to steamers. The most striking features in its expansion are, firstly, its rapid growth in the last five years, and, secondly, the large average size of the steamers individually. Germany already owns twenty-one passenger steamers of over 10,000 tons each, of which eight exceed a tonnage of 12,000, and others are being built. The possession of such vessels, many of very high speed, is of great value to the nation as a powerful adjunct to the navy. A still larger vessel of 19,000 tons, the 'Kaiser Wilhelm II.,' is now being built; but hitherto the 'Deutschland,' of the Hamburg-American Line, of 16,200 (with 35,600 horse-power), has been the largest

German ship. She is the fastest afloat, and has crossed the Atlantic at an average speed of 23·51 knots, the longest run in one day being 557 nautical miles. The two leading steamship companies, the North German Lloyd and the Hamburg-American Line, have succeeded in acquiring a remarkable position in the world's carrying trade, holding between them, as they will do at the end of 1901, a gross registered tonnage of no less than 1,097,715 for sea-going vessels, consisting of 289 ships of 524,005 tons for the former and of 120 of 573,710 for the latter. They are, indeed, by far the largest steamer companies in the world. The additions to their fleets during 1900 and 1901 have been 87 vessels of 188,697 tons for the Lloyd Company and of 51 of 238,532 tons for the Hamburg-American Line. That they have obtained an immense passenger traffic, even where many old-established rival lines compete, is shown by the fact that some 40 per cent. of the total number of persons crossing the Atlantic to New York in 1900 fell to their share alone. Their ships have, for some years, held the Atlantic record for speed—a fact which, added to their well-

known reputation for general comfort and good food, has helped considerably in their material progress. They are now spreading their network of branch lines all over the world, and already more or less cover the most important parts of Europe, Asia, Africa, and the two Americas. The Hamburg-American Company is reported to be about to start steamer connections across the Pacific Ocean from Japan to North America, by which means it will finally encircle the globe with its own lines of vessels, with the exception of the transport from San Francisco to New York overland. It is to be remarked that, whereas the North German Lloyd Company has for years past enjoyed imperial subsidies, none have ever been received by the Hamburg-American Line. The remarkable development of the latter company has, therefore, been entirely due to the successful private enterprise and able management of the owners. Statistics for German harbours, foreign ports, and the Suez Canal amply testify to the extraordinary development of German maritime interests all over the world. In 1900 and 1901 no less than 763,284 and 840,408 tons of

shipping (mostly steamers and including men-of-war building in private yards) were built for German account, 584,493 and 623,934 respectively being for the mercantile marine. Of those totals 149,690 and 201,435 tons were built in foreign countries, the rest in German yards.

The immense development of the sea-borne commerce, now estimated at about 70 per cent. of the total foreign trade, a result of the great industrial prosperity, has caused the Imperial Government to make many efforts to bring prominently before the public the advisability of a large navy in order to adequately protect these growing maritime interests. In the Navy Bill of 1898 prominence was, therefore, given to the following considerations: the expansion of imports and exports in recent years, the rapid investment of German capital abroad, the acquisition of the Colonial Possessions, the improving condition of the fisheries, and the rate at which the population was growing. Moreover, it was pointed out that this expansion of 'over-sea' interests was accompanied by the danger of a conflict with those of other nations, a contingency that must be provided against by a more powerful navy. In return for the

still greater expenditure, eventually sanctioned by the 1900 Navy Bill (for details of which see the Chapter on 'German Finances'), the Empire will be in a position not only to prevent any blockade of its coasts, but also to place on the high seas powerful naval squadrons for attack. This material addition of naval power will be exerted in all parts of the world to extend German influence and protect German interests. The present national aspiration of becoming a 'world-power' with a 'world-policy' means, necessarily, the acquisition of the status of a great naval power in addition to the position already obtained as the leading territorial power in Europe.

Since 1871 there has been carried out some remarkable imperial legislation of a social-reform nature, especially as to compulsory insurance in the whole Empire against sickness, accidents, infirmity, and old age. It is, however, a subject which is not quite in keeping with the character of this chapter. A statement, therefore, on the subject of the laws that have been passed during the last thirty years tending to improve the condition of the working classes will be found as an Appendix on page 323.

It is impossible to close this chapter without referring in two instances to the further economic unity effected quite recently in the matter of common imperial legislation. One of the latest bonds of union forged between the Federated States of the Empire was accomplished in 1896, when the 'Reichstag' adopted the new Civil Code (*Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch*) which had taken various Commissions twenty-seven years of work to complete satisfactorily. It assimilated the principal existing laws, left out much that was antiquated, and introduced many new subjects which had become of importance with the changing circumstances of modern times: in so far as local statutes have not been unified under it, the old civil codes still hold good in each State. Its provisions have been effective since January 1, 1900. An improved Commercial Code also came into force on that date, which revised and amplified the already existing one, which dates back to the days of the North German Confederation, besides adding various matters not formerly included so as to bring it up to date and into keeping with the contents of the new Civil Code.

In considering the progress of wealth and the possibility of its continuance in the future, one must take into account some of the probable impediments. They are, chiefly, the labour problem, the question of available capital, and the extent to which the Imperial Government may succeed in opening up foreign markets for the benefit of German commerce on the expiration, at the end of 1903, of the existing commercial tariff treaties.

Statesmen of all countries are now perfectly aware that the German Empire of to-day is not by any means the Germany of yesterday, and that they are bound to carefully watch its commercial and industrial progress, because of the growing tendency to make commercial rather than political questions a cause of strife between nations. There is now a singular unity of purpose among the people of all the Federated States of the Empire which promises well for national achievements in the future ; for, whatever may be their political opinions, they are one at heart in their earnest desire to promote the welfare of this regenerated 'Fatherland' of which they are so justly proud.

CHAPTER IV

THE ARMY AND NAVY

THE power of Germany has hitherto rested almost entirely on its splendid army; in the future it will have a further immense accession of strength in a great navy. The recruits for both are obtained by means of universal conscription, and the conditions of service are the same in many respects. The army has now probably reached the utmost limit of expansion consistent with a proper development of the nation, with the exception of small additions which will be periodically added in years to come as the population of the Empire gradually increases. With the navy, however, it is a different matter. Under the recent imperial laws of 1898 and 1900 it is about to expand enormously from one of comparatively small dimensions, chiefly for coast defence, to a large one, able to place really

powerful squadrons on the high seas, more nearly approaching in strength those of some of the older maritime nations. The greater demand in the future for men for the navy, under these new arrangements, will necessarily tend to lessen further army expansion by somewhat reducing the number of those available as soldiers.

During the existence of the Germanic Confederation, dating from 1815 onwards, there had been a confederate army consisting of ten army corps, jointly provided by the then unified States, three by Austria, three by Prussia, one by Bavaria, and three more by all the remaining countries together. But the body of troops thus placed at the disposal of the Confederate Government by each State, known as a 'contingent,' was in itself an entirely separate army under the direct command of its own ruler, and was paid for by him alone both in times of peace and war. Together these 'contingents' formed a motley army of diversified parts which the Germanic Confederation was at liberty to summon to its aid in case of national danger, either placing them under one supreme Commander-in-Chief,

if mutually elected by the representatives of the Confederate Governments sitting in the Diet, or, if not, under their respective local commanders, named by their sovereigns. But as during warfare each ruler was by right the Commander-in-Chief of his own troops, and as the soldiers in their military oath only undertook to obey their own sovereigns personally and not the Confederate Government, it was quite possible for a State to take up arms even against the latter, as indeed happened in 1866, when those countries which were allied with Prussia in the new northern amalgamation did not hesitate to array themselves against the Diet of the Germanic Confederation, which had decided to mobilise the confederate army in order to march on the kingdom of Prussia for her action in attacking the Austrian troops in connection with the Schleswig-Holstein question. From reasons of economy, however, the army of the Germanic Confederation in times of peace was not maintained at its full strength, which as early as 1812 had been fixed at 1 per cent. of the population; only a certain portion was kept with the colours, and the rest was allowed to be on leave. Thus it

came about that there was no really large standing army until the North German Confederation (in which Austria had no part) was finally established in 1866, when it became necessary in order to effectively uphold the newly acquired position of Prussia and her allied States against any aggressions on the part of strong neighbouring powers.

A great advance in the matter of the amalgamation of the German army was brought about by the Constitution of the North German Confederation, which explicitly provided that the Confederate Government only had the right to declare war, to conclude peace, and to make treaties and alliances. They were also authorised to at once declare war in case of actual invasion or attack by sea ; but otherwise a war could not be begun without the consent of sovereigns ruling over at least two-thirds of the population of the confederate territories. The King of Prussia then became the Commander-in-Chief of all the armies of the North German Confederation ; and, by a secret agreement establishing a defensive and offensive alliance with Prussia, the Southern States, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden, and

Hesse-Darmstadt, although still independent, undertook in case of war to place their troops also under his orders. All the members of the North German Confederation and the southern independent States were thus bound down to make common cause with Prussia in the future, and the right of that kingdom to direct all operations in time of war was finally recognised.

A further step in the progress of the unification and *solidarité* of the German army was effected in the 1871 Constitution. On the formation of the German Empire in that year the control of both the army and navy passed to the Imperial Crown. But, while the authority over the former remained limited in some respects, that over the latter was complete. This is accounted for by the sketch given above of the formation of the imperial army out of the formerly separate bodies of troops of the different Federated Governments, which forces, although more closely merged into one united whole under the Empire than under the North German Confederation, still continued in a few cases to retain some independence in the matter of management by their own States in times of peace.

The navy, on the other hand, had always been a purely Prussian institution, and as such was handed over intact first to the North German Confederation in 1866 and then to the Empire in 1871. Its flag still bears only the Prussian eagle and iron cross on the imperial colours, black-white-red. As regards the outer world, however, the German army had become a compact fighting unit of immense possibilities. Perhaps one of the most powerful incentives to the establishment of the new Empire was the opportunity it afforded of obtaining in the future a more direct and effective control than before over all the armies of the unified German States, a condition so important to the maintenance of a dominating position in Europe. The want of sufficient control had been a cause of weakness in the North German Confederation.

After 1871 certain sovereign rights over their armies still remained in the hands of the Kings of Bavaria, Saxony, and Wurtemberg under special military conventions made with them by the Prussian Government. The present imperial army, therefore, still consists of four distinct sections ; namely, of (a) the troops

of Prussia and of those belonging to the smaller States administered by her, with seventeen army corps ; (b) the troops of Bavaria, with three army corps ; (c) the troops of Saxony, with two army corps ; and (d) the troops of Wurtemberg, with one army corps. It is on this account that, though the German army is practically an imperial one and is entirely paid for by the Empire, there is no Imperial War Office. Prussia and the three other States all have their separate War Offices and staffs. But the Emperor, who is the supreme head of the German army by the terms of the Constitution, exercises his authority over the whole through his Prussian Minister of War, who is the highest administrative authority and who has no actual military command over any troops. The decisions of the Federal Council (*Bundesrath*) are executed and the orders of the Emperor to the whole German army are communicated by him. But in the three kingdoms of Bavaria, Saxony, and Wurtemberg they are carried out by their respective sovereigns. In the 'Reichstag' the interests of the German army are represented by the Chancellor of the Empire, or by the Prussian

Minister of War in his absence, and by special Bavarian, Saxon, and Wurtemberg military plenipotentiaries (*Militair-Bevollmächtigter*) who are members of the 'Bundesrath.'

The military relations of the kingdoms of Bavaria, Saxony, and Wurtemberg with Prussia differ in the degree of their independent rights in matters affecting their home armies in times of peace. Each of the kings of these three States commands his own army, which, though allowed in the case of all three countries to remain an independent one, has had to be entirely modelled on Prussian lines. All these three armies fall under the direct orders of the Emperor in time of war, and they are subject to his inspection in time of peace. Both officers and men in the Bavarian and Saxon armies do not serve outside their respective States in times of peace; those of Wurtemberg do so sometimes. Separate military budgets are drawn up for all three countries, as well as for Prussia; but whereas those of Prussia, Saxony, and Wurtemberg are merged into the general budget of the Empire, and their accounts have to be settled with the Imperial Treasury, that of Bavaria is

allowed to occupy a unique position. This consists in a lump sum, calculated on exactly the same basis as the estimated expenditure for all the States, being handed over to the Bavarian Government, who deal with it as they think fit in their own separate budget, which is not subject to control either by the Exchequer of the Empire or by the 'Reichstag.' The kingdom of Bavaria thus enjoys in this and some other respects the most independent position in military matters. A further privilege is enjoyed by the Bavarian army since 1900. In that year a new Code of Military Law for the whole German army came into force and superseded the former three separate Codes for courts-martial—namely, for Prussia and Saxony jointly, for Bavaria, and for Wurtemberg—and an Imperial Military Court of Appeal was then established. As regards the kingdom of Bavaria, however, it was stipulated that Bavarians should only go before a specially constituted branch court thereof, or 'Senat,' in which the judges were to be appointed by the Bavarian Government, but which nevertheless was to form a constituent part of that supreme tribunal.

The 1871 Constitution, however, bound all the four sections of the German army closely together by the nature of its articles dealing with military matters, and in the course of the succeeding thirty years they have been still more identified as one body by various successive important measures which have been sanctioned by imperial legislation. The far-reaching uniformity aimed at in the Constitution was obtained by the following provisions, which are, of course, still in force to-day. The burden and cost of the whole national armament of the new German Empire is borne by all the Federated States jointly out of imperial funds. (See Chapter X., on 'Finances.') The strength of the army is determined by imperial laws. It may here be observed that in 1871 it was fixed by the Constitution at 1 per cent. of the total population as it stood in 1867, and the sum to be furnished by the Federated States to the Imperial Exchequer for the maintenance of this force and all its appurtenances was to be calculated on the basis of a charge of 33*l.* 15*s.* 0*d.* per man, making a total of 13,339,236*l.* for the nation. The whole of the land forces form one single

army under the command of the Emperor, both in peace and war, the only limitations to his complete authority in this respect being those specifically sanctioned under the above-mentioned military conventions with Bavaria, Saxony, and Wurtemberg. All soldiers can, generally speaking, be moved at all times from every State to any other part of the Empire ; but there are exceptions in time of peace in Bavaria, Saxony, and Wurtemberg, when the consent of the sovereigns of those kingdoms is necessary. The troops have to obey the orders of the Emperor ; they undertake to do so in their military oath at the same time that they swear allegiance to their own particular sovereign. The whole army system, as existing in Prussia in 1871, has had to be introduced into every State of the Empire ; even the cut and general colour of the uniforms have been adopted. The cockades, or other special insignia, however, of the Federated States can be worn, and usually are, as well as the imperial ones. The Emperor has been given the right to inspect the armies of all States in order to see that this uniform adaptation of the Prussian system has been properly

carried out. He appoints most of the higher commanding officers and the governors of fortresses ; but in other respects, if no conventions or agreements to the contrary exist, each ruler of a Federate State appoints his own officers and commands his local troops. The Emperor cannot declare war without the assent of the Federal Council, unless the territories or coasts of the Empire are actually threatened ; but he can at any time cause the troops to be mobilised. He can also order the construction of fortresses in all parts of the Empire. Finally, he can declare any district within the imperial dominions to be in a state of siege if the public security is disturbed.

The defence of the Empire is effected by a standing army and navy, and, as a final resort, by the 'Landsturm,' which can be called out by imperial proclamation. Both in the army and navy there are, firstly, the forces serving with the colours and with the fleet, and, secondly, the reserves for both. Any further drafts of men required are drawn from the 'Landwehr' and 'Seewehr' respectively until they are exhausted, when recourse must be had to the 'Landsturm.'

In 1874 the peace strength of the army was 347,126 men, 17,033 officers, and 54,533 non-commissioned officers. Its growth since that year is shown in the following table, giving the totals provided for in each year's imperial estimates, exclusive, of course, of all 'one-year volunteers,' whose numbers vary.

TABLE OF DEVELOPMENT OF GERMAN ARMY 1874 TO 1902.

Year	Officers	Non-com- missioned officers	Men		
			I Privates, lance-cor- porals, and bombardiers	II Artisans	Total I. and II.
1874	17,033	54,533	337,757	9,369	347,126
1881	18,128	59,465	357,718	10,091	367,809
1887	19,262	63,663	393,896	10,850	404,746
1893	22,458	77,864	471,986	7,243	479,229
1898	23,176	78,207	471,999	7,230	479,229
1901	24,145	80,642	486,980	7,371	494,351
1902	24,292	80,985	488,931	6,569	495,500

During 1900 the strength of the standing army was about 608,000, including some 9,000 'one-year volunteers.' They were distributed thus in that year, the figures in brackets indicating the war strength: infantry and rifle battalions, 625 [1,389], cavalry squadrons 476 [685], field and horse batteries 571 [925], and the following

battalions: foot artillery 37 [76], pioneer 25 [48], railway 7 [21], telegraph 3 [9], balloon $\frac{1}{2}$ [1], and train 23 [46]. By October 1902 there will, however, be formed another six squadrons of cavalry, three field and horse batteries, one foot artillery, and one pioneer battalions. In the war figures are included the calculated reserve and 'Landwehr' formations, but not the trained 'Landsturm.' In time of peace 104,485 horses are required, and about 600,000 in times of warfare. In 1874 the number of guns was 1,200, now it is 2,542. The body of trained men available from the reserve and 'Landwehr' is put at 3,000,000. They would also furnish about 29,000 officers. Besides these resources, there are some 4,000,000 untrained men available from the 'Ersatzreserve' and 'Landsturm'; and in the latter force are included about 800,000 men who have passed through a training in the army. The following is the system under which this enormous supply of soldiers is provided.

The Constitution of the Empire provides that 'every German is liable to military service, which obligation he is not allowed

to perform by substitute.' All subjects, therefore, are liable either to bear arms or to render such other services as they may be capable of for military purposes. Every male, if drawn for service, is required, on attaining the age of twenty, to serve, firstly, seven years in the standing army ; and, secondly, the remainder of his regular service until the expiration of his thirty-ninth year in the 'Landwehr.' In the cavalry and horse artillery three years are spent with the colours and four with the reserve ; in the other arms the periods are two and five years respectively. But the general liability to serve, including all those not actually in the army or navy, begins at the age of seventeen, and does not cease until forty-five as regards the 'Landsturm,' which consists of a body of men employed, as a rule, for home defence only, but which may be utilised for filling up vacancies in the ranks both of the army and navy in cases of extreme necessity. The only exceptions to this obligatory and universal conscription are found in the cases of members of reigning families or of mediatised Princely Houses. And permanent exemptions from this onerous obligation only occur in the case

of (a) not being drawn by lot for active service ; (b) not being physically fit to serve ; (c) being unworthy to enlist, in consequence of some act committed involving criminal punishment or loss of certain rights because of misbehaviour ; (d) being in the position of being the only support of a widowed mother or helpless family or of having to keep going an agricultural undertaking or a factory. The last-mentioned disabilities (d) may, however, disappear with a change of circumstances, when the military obligations revive. Temporary postponement of military service also occurs where men are going through special courses of study or are residing abroad. One other exception occurs in the case of those born in Heligoland before the annexation of that island to the Empire in 1890. All persons, however, who have escaped conscription by lot from the fact of drawing a high number, or who have been rejected on account of minor bodily defects, are relegated to the 'Ersatzreserve.' They form a body of supernumeraries for the space of twelve years, during which, besides some training, they may be called upon to fill up vacancies in the standing army or in its dépôts on mobilisation.

Men who are temporarily unfit when drawn, and who continue to be so after the expiration of the first two years of liability to serve after conscription, are also drafted to this reserve, as well as those exempted on account of having near relations to support, &c. Some of the 'Ersatzreserve' men are trained every year for certain administrative and other duties which they may be able to perform, though not fit to be used as fighting units. In Prussia universal liability to serve in the army dates from 1808, and the 'Landwehr' and 'Landsturm' were instituted in 1813.

Of the conscripts yearly selected by lot, all the able-bodied men, after selection of those destined for the cavalry, guards, and other special regiments, are assigned to regiments in the order of the numbers that they have drawn. The recruits actually joining the army in this way every year now amount to some 235,000, or to about a half of the total numbers taken by conscription. The rest are discarded altogether, or they are relegated to the 'Ersatzreserve' mentioned above, or to the 'Landsturm,' which consists of two levies, the first containing all persons from seventeen

to thirty-nine years of age, and the second of all those from thirty-nine to forty-five. It will thus be seen that the first levy contains men who have had no military training, whereas those of the second levy comprise all the 'Landwehr' men on expiry of service, and they are, therefore, experienced and well trained. In addition to the above yearly recruits there are the 'volunteers,' amounting to some 50,000 altogether each year. They are of two kinds. The 'one-year volunteers' are those who, after showing a certain proficiency in studies by means of proper certificates granted by specially appointed Commissioners (see Chapter on 'National Education'), undertake to clothe, feed, and equip themselves, and in the mounted branches to provide their own horses. In return they have the privilege of serving only one year with the colours, and of choosing the regiment with which they will serve under certain restrictions. They then pass to the Reserve, when, if they go through the necessary examination, they become Lieutenants after certain service, provided that they are 'elected' as such by the officers of their regiments, and hold some independent position. This system

of 'volunteering' on specified conditions, in lieu of submitting to the ordinary conscription, has been adopted in order to make the military service as light as possible for men engaged in acquiring the higher forms of scientific and industrial education. Moreover, this concession is considered to be all the more reasonable as the military authorities are of opinion that the better educated people do not require the same amount of actual drilling as the lower classes. Masters in the State elementary schools and qualified candidates for the position of teachers in them are also privileged in the matter of one year's service. Special regulations also deal with very short military duties for doctors, veterinary surgeons, and apothecaries. Another form of so-called 'volunteering' exists by which persons, over seventeen and before becoming liable to conscription, can enlist for two, three, or four years, in which case they choose their regiments. They furnish most of the non-commissioned officers. Men who, after fulfilling their ordinary military service of whatever kind, voluntarily re-engage for a year are called 'Capitulanten.'

After regular service with the colours comes that in the Reserve and 'Landwehr,' both of which (with the exception of the second levy of the 'Landwehr') consist of trained troops. The former supplies men to fill vacancies in the standing army; the latter is, as regards cavalry and infantry, employed in special corps for the defence of the Empire, whereas in other arms they are equally liable for service in the army or navy according as the necessity may arise. Both in the Reserve and 'Landwehr,' in times of mobilisation or of drawing the necessary drafts for the army from their numbers, the youngest batches are called out first, but some men are allowed to be transferred to those called out later if they can show urgent reasons requiring their presence at home or in some trade. A similar course is often followed in the case of certain officials who would lose their places through not being able to find capable men to act for them, and with regard to some special callings, such as single-handed clergy, schoolmasters, pilots, post, telegraph, and railway officials—that is to say, of men who can find no substitutes to do their work.

All the men in the Reserve, the 'Ersatz-reserve,' and the 'Landwehr,' as well as recruits and 'volunteers' on leave, belong to the so-called 'Beurlaubtenstand,' or body of men on furlough. They are all under military control, and can be called out for training at any time. In case of mobilisation they have to return to Germany, if absent therefrom; but they are otherwise untrammelled in their movements and in their civil occupations. The men in the Reserve are liable altogether to two trainings of not more than eight weeks each; the officers undergo three, lasting from four to eight weeks. The officers and men in the first levy of the 'Landwehr,' except the cavalry, are liable to two trainings of from eight to fourteen days; while those of the second levy are not liable at all, but training is permitted them. In the 'Ersatzreserve' there is a liability to three trainings of ten, six, and four weeks respectively. The members of the 'Landsturm' do not undergo training at any time.

Whenever mobilisation takes place, or drafts of these men are taken to strengthen the army, any families of the soldiers called

out who may be in straitened circumstances are entitled to pecuniary assistance. It amounts per month to a minimum of six shillings in summer and nine in winter for the wife and to four shillings for each child ; it can be taken in kind. The families also of the men in the reserve, 'Ersatzreserve,' and of the 'Landwehr' and 'Seewehr' (for the navy), who are called out for training in times of peace for the second and third times, obtain help from imperial funds, on its being asked for, to the extent of thirty per cent. of the daily local wage for the wife and of 10 per cent. for each of the others assisted as long as the total amount does not exceed 60 per cent. of the man's earnings.

As regards the officers of the active army in Prussia they are obtained : (1) from the cadet corps after the usual term of studies ; (2) from young men holding a 'Certificate of Maturity' from a 'Gymnasium,' 'Realgymnasium,' or 'Oberrealschule ;' (3) from youths who have left school before obtaining such a certificate, but who have succeeded in passing with high marks the examination for 'Fahnrich' (Ensign) before the Military Examining Board

at Berlin. Both the latter categories, on entering the army, have to serve five to six months as 'Fahnenjunker' (formerly called 'Avantageurs') before being promoted to be 'Fähnriche' (Ensigns); whereas the cadets become so at once on leaving the cadet corps. All three classes of men, however, must subsequently pass the usual officers' examination; and, if they are then approved of by their superior officers in their respective regiments, they may thereupon be 'elected' as officers themselves and receive a commission in the army. The only case in which a commission is ever obtained direct is by certain cadets of good family who, by remaining one year longer than the general period at the chief cadet institution at Gross-Lichterfelde, can receive one direct from the King of Prussia.

Such are, briefly, the duties and liabilities of every German subject as regards the defence of his country by land. If, however, he does not form part of this vast army, other weighty obligations are incumbent upon him with regard to the due protection of his country by sea. General conscription also exists for service in the fleet for the seafaring population,

which comprises all those who have served in German merchant vessels or who have been regularly employed in the sea fisheries during a minimum of one year; engineers and shipwrights are also included therein. The Constitution of the Empire states that all of them 'are exempted from service in the army, but are bound to serve in the imperial navy.' In cases of urgent necessity, when a sufficiency of sailors cannot be obtained from the usual sources of supply, recourse can be had to suitable men from the land population to fill the vacancies. The liability to serve the country begins with the seventeenth and ends with the forty-fifth year, as in the army, and during the period comprised between the twentieth and thirty-ninth year service is compulsory, and begins by three years' active service. Then come four in the Reserve, five in the first levy of the 'Seewehr,' and the rest in the second levy. In the case of the former and in that of the first levy of the latter they can be called out for training. There is also an 'Ersatzreserve,' consisting of men not taken on active service, in which, during a period of twelve years, they are liable

to be called out to fill up vacancies. As in the army, so in the navy, a system of 'volunteering' is allowed on certain conditions for different periods. In the case of the nautical population a 'one-year volunteer' is required to provide either the same Government Examiners' school certificate as in the army, or one of qualification in matters of seamanship. But, for the non-seafaring portion of the community, applicants for the privilege of one year's service have not only to produce the requisite school certificate, but have also, in most cases, to show special capabilities for the branch of the service they are about to enter, usually a knowledge of shipbuilding or of machinery, whether it be in the dockyards, torpedo, or other divisions. 'One-year volunteers' in the navy have not themselves to provide outfit and food, if they belong by profession to the seafaring population. But if they do not they have, as 'land population,' to do so in exactly the same way as in the army. 'Three- and four-year volunteers' consist of healthy youths who can produce documentary proof of the consent of their parents or guardians to enlistment, as well as

school and other testimonials. Persons not forming part of the nautical population can 'volunteer' as sailors for four, five, and six years. Finally, young boys are also admitted as 'volunteers,' in which case they are bound down to a course of two years' study and then to seven of active service. The general army regulations as to the services to be rendered in peace and war apply also to the navy in so far as they are applicable to that force.

The obligations, besides personal enlistment in the army or navy, falling upon all German subjects are of two kinds, those to which they are liable during peace and during war. They are strictly laid down by various imperial laws. Services that have to be rendered in times of peace consist of allowing the quartering of soldiers and horses ; but exemptions are made in favour of buildings belonging to reigning families or to mediatised Princely Houses, of Embassies and Legations of foreign countries, and of some public buildings, such as churches, schools, hospitals, &c. Other services comprise the supplying of horses and forage, and of food for the men. There is also an obligation to furnish any ships required, to transport every-

thing for the military authorities by rail at fixed tariffs, and to allow the use of lands (with certain exceptions) for manœuvres. Services, to be rendered during mobilisation or in times of war, include, besides the above-mentioned peace obligations, the supply of labour and materials for the construction of roads, forts, and other military purposes, as well as the surrender of all lands and buildings required and the furnishing of bread, horses, cattle, sheep, and forage. Moreover, the railways are bound to transport all men, horses, war materials, &c., and to hand over their employees, materials, and rolling stock to be used for military purposes, and those situated near the seat of war are liable to be placed under control of the military authorities. The extent to which the latter have the right to raze buildings and to cut down trees &c. within a certain radius round fortresses in order to leave open spaces is carefully laid down by law. In all cases, however, fair compensation is always granted both for the above peace and war services.

The general principle underlying the whole German system is to thoroughly train a large proportion of the men in the Empire able to

carry arms, while not keeping them from their respective civilian professions or occupations longer than is necessary to fit them to take an effective part as soldiers in the army or as sailors in the navy whenever they may be needed by the nation. In neither branch are the officers required to pass competitive examinations of any kind. A sound and practical knowledge, however, of the subjects essential to his future career is what is expected of every man, and without it no one will be able to pass the various examinations which are invariably organised so as to test a man's fitness for the post he is about to occupy either in the army or navy, both as to book knowledge and practical ability. Once received into either profession, the officers are, in some respects, allowed a remarkable amount of independence of action in their respective duties, especially in matters affecting the instruction of the men, as it is considered to be advisable to encourage and develop individual capacity as far as possible which would enable a man to take the initiative and make the most of any situation in which he might find himself. Every effort is also made to increase the intelli-

gence of the private soldiers and sailors, and to make them self-reliant under unforeseen circumstances.

The history of the development of the German navy has been a curious one. As early as the latter part of the seventeenth century, after the 'Thirty Years' War, the 'Grosser Kurfürst' of Brandenburg, a State that was then much to the fore, started a fleet of three hired Dutch ships in order to be able to contend in the Baltic with the Swedes, whom he was fighting on account of his claim to Pomerania, then held by them. He eventually raised its strength to twelve ships, which even fought against the Spaniards with some success. The State of Brandenburg during his rule also actually became a colonial power in a small way on the West Coast of Africa. But within twenty years of his death both fleet and colonial possessions had disappeared. Frederick the Great during the 'Seven Years' War' maintained for a time some armed ships for use against Sweden, but he was too much taken up with military matters to devote his attention to the question of a permanent fleet. From 1811 onwards there exist official docu-

ments showing how various distinguished military officers on many occasions put forward the advisability of the kingdom of Prussia possessing small armed flotillas to protect the coasts, and guard-ships for the due protection of the Haffs and harbours of Königsberg, Elbing, and Pillau. In 1807 a small temporary flotilla had been launched on the Frischen Haff to keep the French out of the country in the neighbourhood of the bay of Danzig. This necessity had called the attention of the Government to the question of proper coast protection. When Sweden in 1815, under the arrangements of the Congress of Vienna, handed over New Pomerania and the island of Rügen to Prussia, there were included, in the 525,000*l.* paid by the Prussian to the Swedish Government on evacuation, six gunboats. These ships, however, turned out to be practically useless. In 1815 there was a project of building some sloops propelled by steam and furnished with paddlewheels, in 1825 the first small gunboat was launched, and in 1829 the question of a regular naval establishment in times of peace was mooted. In 1835 the Prussian Government announced their

intention of taking steps to protect the Baltic shore, and a Commission actually arranged for the establishment of a small coast flotilla. This project shows that the establishment of a Prussian fleet was not originally due either to the events of 1848 or to the first Danish war, but that it dates from several years earlier. The ' *Amazone*,' taken over from the mercantile marine in 1841, may be looked upon as the first ship of the Prussian navy intended for the defence of the coasts ; for such vessels as had been built or bought before that time were merely for the protection of inland waters.

The blockade by the Danes, however, of the German ports in 1848 so seriously injured Prussian maritime interests, which were then beginning to make some headway, that the necessity of possessing a fleet to prevent such a recurrence at the hands of a foreign country was recognised by the public. It was at this time that the National Assembly, sitting at Frankfort, was trying to found a united German Empire, in which project the establishment of an imperial navy was a prominent feature. It was unsuccessful in its object, but during a few years there was a ' *Parliamentary* ' fleet of

a few ships, under the orders of the Germanic Confederation, which fought the Danes. The Prussian Government meanwhile built a small flotilla, and Prince Adalbert of Prussia, for so many years the great promoter of the idea of the establishment of a permanent navy, was named its first Admiral. In 1852 this small force was strengthened by the addition of some ships of the former 'Parliamentary' fleet, which had to be sold by the Diet as there were no more available funds with which to keep it up. In the following year three events of some importance to the future of the German navy occurred. The present harbour of Wilhelmshaven, now the naval base for the North Sea, was acquired by treaty from the Duke of Oldenburg; the Prussian Ministry of Marine was founded; and some men-of-war were for the first time sent abroad to show the Prussian flag in foreign waters. During the war with Denmark in connection with the Schleswig-Holstein Duchies in 1864 the first Prussian naval battle was fought at Jasmund in the Baltic, which prevented a blockade of the German coast by the Danes. By far the most important result of this war for the navy was

the final occupation of the Duchies by the Austrian and Prussian Governments, which enabled the Baltic naval base of the kingdom of Prussia to be transferred in 1865 from Danzig to the splendid harbour of Kiel in Holstein. On the termination of the 1866 war the Prussian fleet was handed over to the new North German Confederation and flew the latter's flag, black-white-red, from 1867 onwards, colours afterwards retained by the German Empire.

The navy at that time comprised three large armoured battleships and two small ones, besides eight protected frigates and corvettes. Bismarck did all he possibly could to impress on the nation the necessity of a strong fleet, and in the following year came the first real naval programme, which contemplated, after the expiration of ten years, a fleet of sixteen armoured ships, twenty protected frigates and corvettes, and a large number of gunboats. But the construction of these vessels had hardly been begun when the war with France broke out. The North German Confederation at that moment possessed thirty-seven ships all told, of which only five were

armoured. The result was that purely defensive naval tactics had to be followed by Prussia during the 1870 war. But this disadvantage was not felt as much as it might have been owing to the rapidity with which the German troops were marched into France, which prevented the possibility of sparing any French soldiers from France for a descent on the German coasts. Indeed, eventually the French Government had to land large contingents of their naval forces in order to assist the military operations by land. All that the French fleet was able to accomplish during that war was the blockade of the German North Sea coast. Neither did any real naval battle take place in European waters between the French and Germans. It was only in the West Indies that an engagement of any importance took place, and that was merely between two small ships near Havana.

The growth of the navy was gradual but steady under the Empire, various ships of modern type being continually added. A systematic scheme for obtaining a large fleet of definite size, at the expiration of a certain period, was first elaborated in 1897, and it was

accepted by the 'Reichstag,' with some modifications, in the following year. The chief reasons put forward for its adoption were: the necessity of an increase of the fleet because of the recent growth of foreign navies, the advisability of replacing old-fashioned men-of-war by new ones, and the impossibility of duly protecting the immensely developed German interests abroad, as well as the newly acquired colonial possessions, with the existing navy. The chief object was to obtain one really strong fleet to protect the coasts and another for sallying purposes to attack an enemy, besides acquiring a large number of cruisers for foreign service. The strength of the new fleet, under the 1898 law, was to be nineteen battleships, eight coast defence vessels, twelve large and thirty small cruisers, irrespective of numbers of torpedo boats, destroyers, training ships, and others. In 1900 a new law, which replaced the 1898 arrangement, provided a naval programme lasting over a period of sixteen years and increased the strength to thirty-eight battleships, fourteen large and thirty-eight small cruisers. In the original Naval Bill, as presented by the Im-

perial Government, an additional force of six large and seven small cruisers was asked for to be specially employed in distant parts of the world, but the 'Reichstag' would not sanction them. The battle fleet for home waters will, eventually, consist of thirty-four battleships, eight large and twenty-four small cruisers, with a reserve of four ships of the line and of three large and four small cruisers. In the first Home Squadron, always in commission, there are to be eight battleships and two cruisers; a second one is to be formed in summer for practice and manœuvres. For service abroad there will be three large and ten small cruisers available. The above numbers, however, do not by any means represent the full strength of the German navy when the last ship of the sixteen-year period shall have been commissioned, for it was also stipulated that substitutes were to be laid down for all old vessels at fixed periods, on the basis that the life of a battleship and coast defence vessel is twenty-five and that of a cruiser is twenty years. In the year 1920, therefore, the German navy will have also a certain number of older ships, for which modern

substitutes will have already been built. In the case of battleships this means that the Empire will possess fifty-five altogether, of which seventeen may or may not be quite out of date. The total cost of this 1900 programme, as regards the construction and armament of the vessels, will be roughly 73,000,000*l.* Another 13,200,000*l.* is to be spent on dock-yards, and there will also be a largely increased current expenditure that in 1900 amounted to some 3,623,000*l.*, but which by 1917 will rise to about 7,353,000*l.* per annum, and from that year to 1920 there will be a further yearly increase of about 350,000*l.* for the then still increasing *personnel* of the navy. The new programme requires an increase of 1,212 executive officers, besides 283 engineers and a certain number of medical men and paymasters. The total in 1920 will be 3,090 officers of all kinds, whereas the number in 1900 was 1,285. For the crews there will be an increase from 21,528, including warrant officers, petty officers, and men, to 55,809.

It will thus be seen that the rise of Germany as a naval power is to be a rapid one in the course of the next twenty years ;

and the great strength of the fleet to be then attained is all the more remarkable when one remembers that the first German naval review took place as late as 1881, and that it was not until fourteen years later, in 1895, that the first concentrated display of the imperial navy to foreign powers took place on the occasion of the opening of the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal at Kiel, when there were present twenty-seven German men-of-war, besides large numbers of foreign vessels of all nations which had been invited to attend that imposing ceremony.

In consequence of the acquisition by the Empire of the Prussian fleet, an Imperial Admiralty replaced the former Prussian Ministry of Marine. At that time and until 1889 the Admiralty comprised both the functions of a Commander-in-Chief and the actual administration of naval affairs; but in that year the two sets of duties were completely separated, the former being placed in the hands of a Commander-in-Chief and the latter in those of a Secretary of State for the Navy. In 1899 a further important change was made by which all the functions of the Commander-

in-Chief passed direct to the Emperor, while leaving all essentially administrative duties to the Secretary of the Navy under the orders of the Chancellor of the Empire, who is technically the responsible person for its condition. The Emperor has recently assumed the title of 'Gross Admiral,' a personal rank which may be translated as 'THE Admiral of the Fleet.' In this way the respective positions of the army and navy were brought into line in this respect, the Emperor becoming the Supreme Commander-in-Chief of both branches of national defence, and the Imperial Chancellor being directly responsible for their efficiency. The actual administration of the navy was also then more or less modelled on that of the army. Under the Emperor's orders are the 'Marine Cabinet' for transacting personal business, the *Admiral Staff* for duties corresponding to those of the general staff of the army, and the general inspector of the navy, whose sphere of work is periodically laid down. There are two flag officers commanding the home naval stations, one for the North Sea at Wilhelmshaven and one for the Baltic at Kiel, both of which are important naval

harbours. An effective communication between these two seas for the largest men-of-war was obtained by the construction of the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal, begun in 1886 and opened in 1895, which belongs to the Empire. It runs from Kiel Harbour to the mouth of the Elbe, a distance of nearly sixty-one miles, and contains no locks. It has a depth of twenty-nine feet, and is under the direct control of the Government. The fact of opening this valuable strategic waterway practically doubled the value of the German fleet by enabling it to concentrate in either sea without having to circumnavigate Denmark, a necessity which had previously exposed it to possible attack in Scandinavian waters.

There are two other flag officers who respectively command the first squadron and the cruiser squadron, and another is inspector of the training establishments. In recent years the Admiralty has taken over all the coast defence system, including submarine mining and the sea fortifications, though some of them are still garrisoned temporarily by the army owing to the insufficiency of the naval *personnel*. The land forces at the disposal of

the naval authorities for such purposes consist of four seamen's artillery divisions, of which a detachment is stationed at Kiaochow, some 2,200 men strong, and of three marine infantry battalions, numbering about 1,200 men, one of which is also at that place. Besides Kiel and Wilhelmshaven, the island of Heligoland, acquired from the British Government in 1890, and the ports of Cuxhaven and Bremerhaven, are under naval control.

The progress made in building men-of-war in late years has been great, and the ships turned out are of the very best. A certain number of the vessels of the present fleet have been built in the imperial building yards at Kiel, Wilhelmshaven, and Danzig; but their character hitherto has been rather that of Government repairing and fitting-out yards. Large numbers of men-of-war, not only for the Empire but also for many foreign Governments, have been built in the now numerous excellent private shipbuilding yards. One of the important conditions of the 1900 Navy Bill was that all the new ships granted under the sixteen-year programme should be constructed within the limits of the German Empire. The

German navy possesses no submarine boats, and, up to the present, no official trials of such craft have taken place. It is, however, believed that some of the private yards are experimenting with them. The Imperial Government are nevertheless carefully watching the development of this new weapon of naval warfare. Torpedo boats are no longer being built ; 'destroyers,' suitable for both purposes, are taking their place.

The navy has played a considerable part, since the adoption of a colonial policy in 1884, in the acquisition of the present colonial possessions. It was in that year that the imperial flag was hoisted in Africa for the first time by a German man-of-war. In one protectorate—namely, that of Kiaochow, recently obtained from the Chinese Government—the naval authority is supreme. The necessity of duly protecting the increasing colonial possessions of the Empire has, of course, always been one of the chief reasons put forward by the Government for an expansion of naval power. In the course of the last twenty years the imperial flag has been seen in every quarter of the globe ; and the Imperial Government, thanks to their fleet,

have won much respect in all countries by their invariably energetic and prompt support of all legitimate claims of German subjects. With the recent sudden expansion of naval power under the two Bills of 1898 and 1900 has come the necessity of considering the possibilities of affording the future fleet coaling and docking facilities in foreign waters, so as not to be entirely dependent on the coaling stations and dockyards of other countries. It is somewhat difficult, however, to obtain satisfactory positions for the former purpose, as points of connection between the widely scattered German colonial possessions, now that most places of any value are already in the hands of other foreign powers. So far, the only German dock abroad is the floating one just established at Dar-es-Salaam, in German East Africa, but no doubt others will follow in time.

The army does not hold the same position constitutionally that the navy does. The latter is truly imperial in every respect, depending, as it does, entirely on the Emperor and the Imperial Government at all times and under all circumstances. It is called the

‘Imperial Navy,’ which the army is not and cannot be, because of its composite form. The army is always officially designated as the ‘German Army,’ an expression which clearly indicates its distinctive character as contrasted with that of the fleet. In the words of the 1870 Constitution, ‘the organisation and composition’ of the navy ‘is determined by the Emperor, who appoints the officers and officials. They, like the sailors, have to take the oath of allegiance to him personally.’ The oath is, therefore, different from that in the army, where a dual allegiance is sworn both to the ‘Bundesfeldherr,’ or Commander-in-Chief of the Federated Governments in the field—who is, of course, the Emperor from the moment that mobilisation commences—and to the local sovereign. The Emperor has, indeed, an extraordinary amount of power in all naval matters, which is, in fact, only limited by the provisions of various imperial laws passed by the ‘Reichstag,’ chiefly concerning the necessary money supplies, which are still voted and authorised annually, though under a fixed sixteen-year programme which cannot be altered, either in the direction of reduction

or increase, unless by some further law modifying that of 1900. The Emperor is, however, also bound to comply with the laws dealing with enlistment, military matters (applicable mostly to the navy also), &c. But otherwise, by means of edicts and ordinances, he entirely administers the navy through imperial officers quite independently of the 'Reichstag.' In army matters the Imperial Government only prescribes certain standards and regulations, which each Federated State has then, under imperial supervision, to adopt; in naval affairs, however, they are not only decided upon by the Emperor, in conjunction with officials of the Empire, but they are also put into force by him. The Naval Laws of 1898 and 1900 finally placed the greater part of the naval establishment on a legal basis, especially in regard to the strength and cost of maintenance of the most important part of the German fleet.

An important event both for the army and navy was the dispatch of the expeditionary force to China in 1900 in connection with the disturbances there and European intervention. Since the Franco-German war no German troops had been sent on a military expedition

abroad, for all risings that had occurred in German colonial possessions had been dealt with by the naval authorities, or by the specially organised corps of colonial troops (see Chapter on 'Colonial Possessions' for account of these troops). The whole of this expeditionary force was obtained by raising new formations of 'volunteers' from the active army. Including the head quarter staff which was organised, the total number of officers sent out was 582, and that of the non-commissioned officers and men 18,700. They consisted of fifty-five companies of infantry, four squadrons of cavalry, ten batteries of artillery, and three companies of pioneers. Besides these troops there were also two marine infantry battalions, some 1,000 strong, bringing the total land force up to about 19,700 men. The German navy, however, also made a large demonstration by sea, inasmuch as they kept in Chinese waters a fleet of no less than twenty-one ships, consisting of four first-class battleships, an armoured cruiser and nine protected ones, five gunboats, three destroyers, and a sloop. The cost of this expeditionary force will be close on a total of

13,800,000*l.*, of which 11,057,000*l.* will fall to military, 2,392,800*l.* to naval expenses, and the rest chiefly to posts, telegraphs, and pensions.

A sketch of army and navy expenditure will be found in Chapter X., on 'German Finances.' The increase of both has been remarkable. In 1872 the total expended on the army was 16,750,341*l.*, being 13,339,236*l.* for recurring and 3,411,105*l.* for non-recurring expenses; by 1900 it had risen to 33,300,023*l.*, being 27,074,783*l.* for recurring and 6,225,240*l.* for non-recurring expenditure. Meanwhile, the total amount spent on the navy in 1872 was 1,554,106*l.*, being 742,642*l.* for recurring and 811,464*l.* for non-recurring expenses; by 1900 it had increased to 8,110,797*l.*, being 3,697,322*l.* for recurring and 4,413,475*l.* for non-recurring expenditure.

CHAPTER V

COMMERCIAL POLICY

THE territorial duties which existed in the numerous States of Germany at the beginning of the nineteenth century were disastrous to internal traffic and fatal to any economic expansion. In the German territories of that day there were no fewer than thirty-eight customs frontiers with hostile tariffs. The first impetus to the attainment of a better state of things was given by the Prussian Government when they enacted their Customs Law of 1818. In their provinces alone fifty-seven different local tariffs with 2,775 rates of duty on the consumption of imported goods had existed prior to that date. The new law, which applied exclusively to the Kingdom of Prussia, abolished them, and established in their place protective duties for financial purposes at the frontiers, only a few articles continuing to

pay as before a duty on consumption in the interior. These duties were also levied on goods in transit, which circumstance was of considerable assistance in later years in bringing about the adhesion to the Prussian Customs Union of other German States whose products were almost excluded by the new tariff. Prussia had, three years previously, become a leading member of the new political Germanic Confederation which held its first Diet at Frankfort in 1816, and which also comprised Austria, Bavaria, Saxony, and thirty-five other German States, including the free towns of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck. In its Constitution no distinct provisions were made regulating commercial matters ; but the adhering members of the Confederation reserved the right to discuss at the Diet questions of commercial intercourse and of shipping facilities between their respective territories. None of them, however, wished to be limited in their complete freedom as to the levying of duties or taxes ; so that, although politically united for common ends, they remained commercially communities utterly isolated from one another in which a form of the ' mercantile system ' was then in

vogue. This commercial policy included, under the fundamental principle that the riches of a country are measured by the amount of gold and silver accumulated within its territories, the encouragement of exportation and the discouragement of importation, so as to receive as much and to part with as little money as possible. To effect this object local production was protected by the imposition of duties on imports or by prohibitions to import certain goods at all.

The Prussian Customs Law of 1818 was a decided advance economically, and soon compelled certain small States, whose territories were either entirely or partially within the new customs system, to join for financial reasons. But the feeling in other parts of Germany became so strong against this innovation, which was considered to be injurious to the general interests of the whole country, that various attempts were soon made to organise counter-customs associations, which resulted in 1828 in a commercial union of Bavaria and Wurtemberg. In that year, however, not only did Hesse-Darmstadt join the Prussian customs system, but a real community of tariff interests

was brought about between them, for it was arranged that any change of duties could only be effected by mutual consent, which implied an equal share in drawing up tariffs and their regulations. This was of great political importance, and was the real foundation of the future famous 'Zollverein.' The position of Prussia was then further fortified by the addition of the two Anhalts. Saxony having organised in opposition a hostile Central German Commercial Union, the Prussian Government invited the Bavarian-Wurtemberg Union to join their tariff system, an object that was successfully accomplished in 1833. This master-stroke definitely determined the permanent existence of a Customs Union of the chief German States, and quashed the chances of success of the separatist policy of the other Central and Southern Countries. Hesse-Cassel, Saxony, and the Thuringian States then promptly joined the Prussian conglomeration, which from that date was universally known as the German 'Zollverein.' The effect was to greatly strengthen the activity of the home industries by the extended sale of their products within the union and to diminish the importation of

foreign goods. The views as to the amount of protection to be afforded to this development differed, the Northern States inclining to greater freedom of trade and the southern countries leaning towards heavier protection. This diversity of opinion sometimes led to critical moments in the existence of the 'Zollverein,' which Austria, with her high Protectionist principles, made use of on several occasions to establish a community of interests with the South German States in opposition to Prussia, so as either to force an entrance into the 'Zollverein' or to found a rival one of her own. The Prussian Government succeeded in again strengthening their hands by the conclusion of treaties effecting a customs union with Hanover in 1851, and with Schaumburg-Lippe and Oldenburg in 1852. This success roused still further resentment in Southern Germany ; but Prussia now felt herself strong enough to announce her determination to sever her connection with the existing 'Zollverein' and to start a fresh one on more satisfactory lines, which, however, was not done, as a tariff treaty was eventually made with the Austrian Government in 1853, when it was agreed that

Austria should remain outside this union, which was then prolonged for a further term of years. By 1854 it included the whole of Germany except Holstein-Lauenburg, the two Mecklenburgs, and the three Hanse Towns.

In order to bring about the creation of the 'Zollverein' it had been necessary to grant most States the absolute right of veto in the tariff and customs matters falling within the jurisdiction of each. But there were a few small ones which had no right of voting and which were represented by other members of the 'Zollverein.' In the beginning it was important to safeguard each country's complete liberty of action, so that no single member should be bound down by the joint decisions of the others. No closer customs union would have had a chance of succeeding against the formidable opposition of Austria and of some of the German States. With the growth of the antagonism between the Protectionist and Free Trade movements, it became more and more difficult to obtain unanimity for any important tariff measure, for one State was generally to be found in determined opposition. So much was this the case that Prussia

had several times to threaten to dissolve the 'Zollverein' in order to get necessary measures passed. Endless difficulties arose in meeting modern requirements which were essential for a proper economic development of Germany, which caused Bismarck, on his accession to power in 1862, to earnestly consider the question of its reorganisation. And when the Diet at Frankfort proceeded in 1863 to take steps to carry out some of Austria's projects, which were incompatible with Prussian interests, he gave notice of the termination of Prussia's connection with the existing 'Zollverein' and of the creation of a new one in which a thorough reform of Constitution and a much closer union would be effected. The plan was, however, not carried out, and Prussia remained a member for some years longer, as Austria was, at length, pacified by the 1865 Commercial Treaty. But the opportunity he sought for came in 1866 with the difficulties between Prussia and Austria as to the Schleswig-Holstein question. On the Austrian Government asserting before the Diet that the Prussian Government had broken their engagements in those Duchies,

the Prussian representative declared that the Germanic Confederation was at an end, and announced the intention of his Government to form a new one from which Austria would be excluded. The war then broke out, and many of the German States joined Austria against Prussia.

As a result of this war, which ended in the autumn of 1866, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, Hanover, and Frankfort ceased to be independent States and were incorporated with Prussia, as were also Holstein, Lauenburg, and Schleswig. The Southern States still retained their independence: but the North German Confederation that was now established, under the presidency of the Kingdom of Prussia, included all the countries lying to the north of the Maine as well as the northern part of Hesse-Darmstadt. Its new Constitution, which included the regulation of duties and taxes, came into force in 1867, and its first Diet met at Berlin in that year. The question of the new organisation of the 'Zollverein' was then taken in hand, and a united customs union with a much improved Constitution replaced it, so that the complete commercial

unity aimed at by Bismarck in 1862 was then attained. A temporary prolongation of the old 'Zollverein' arrangements with the Southern German States was effected by the 'Treaties of Peace, but with the clear understanding that they must shortly adopt the new conditions or remain entirely outside the new 'Zollverein.' The 1867 special conventions with Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden, and Hesse—which States were not included in the new North German Confederation—regulated their relations to the new 'Zollverein,' which by 1868 comprised all the German States except Hamburg and Bremen, which two free towns, nevertheless, had their representatives both in the Federal Council and in the Diet of the North German Confederation. The two Mecklenburg States were unable to become members before that year because of a commercial treaty with France which had established lower duties than those of the 'Zollverein' for a fixed term of years; and it was only then that the free State of Lübeck also decided to join. A special Customs Parliament, elected by all the people of Germany, was called together in 1868. It

was composed of members of the new 'Reichstag' of the North German Confederation and of special representatives of the non-adhering four South German States. The direction of tariffs and of commercial affairs was placed in the hands of a Customs Federal Council, in which decisions were taken by absolute majority of votes, without, as before, reference to and approval by the legislatures of each State, Prussia, in her capacity as President, retaining, however, the rights of general superintendence, of veto, of concluding treaties of commerce and navigation, and of calling together, adjourning, and closing the Customs Parliament. But the actual control of local customs matters was left to each separate State. The 'Zollverein' regulated not only all questions of importation and exportation, but also the equal taxation of salt, tobacco, and beet sugar, and important steps were taken respecting a common system of weights and coinage.

Some parts of the Bremen and Hamburg States continued to decline to join the 'Zollverein' until 1888 and 1889 respectively, though their territories formed part of the North

German Confederation and subsequently, after 1871, of the German Empire. An historical retrospect of their peculiar position will, therefore, be of interest here. The Hanse Towns had enjoyed an immense power in former times, and their great commercial enterprise and favourable geographical situation had won for them a unique position of which they were justly proud. They made their own treaties of commerce and navigation and had a large number of diplomatic and consular representatives in all parts of the world. Those of Hamburg alone numbered about 300 persons. Their flags were the only ones representing German shipping and trade known to foreign countries and on the high seas. They, therefore, saw no advantages in joining the German Customs Union. On the contrary, they were most desirous of maintaining separately their own special interests by complete independence in all tariff, commercial, and shipping matters. Their commercial policy was not originally a Free Trade one ; in fact, the tendency to Free Trade principles only began in the early part of the nineteenth century. The town of Altona, then belonging to Holstein and later to Prussia, was

the one exception, for it was really a free port, with some intervals, for about two centuries before the year 1888, when it was absorbed into the German Customs Union. In the Hanse Towns of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck import duties had always existed, but as their commerce became more and more a purely transit trade they gradually reduced or abolished them. In the case of Hamburg great reductions were made between the years 1825 and 1830, but some few remained even as late as 1874. Bremen followed suit in 1824 and Lübeck in 1833.

The attitude of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck, the great ports of Germany, became the more galling as time went on from the fact of their remaining outside the 'Zollverein' on the same footing as foreign countries. It was not until the year 1856 that Bremen at last conceded the advantage of a 'Zollverein' custom-house within the limits of its port, through which foreign goods could be imported direct into Germany. The result of this concession was that the actual trade between the German 'Zollverein' and foreign countries could be carried on just as well as if Bremen had joined

the Customs Union. But this arrangement did not oblige that free town to take any share in its burdens, and, at the same time, secured its complete independence commercially. In 1867 a similar custom-house was obtained in Hamburg. Both that town and Bremen, in spite of their continued independent commercial position, were then given equal rights of voting with the other members of the Customs Union ; but they had, consequently, from that date to take their due share in the financial obligations of membership. The creation of the North German Confederation did not materially affect the independent policy of the Hanse Towns, though many of their inhabitants came to desire complete tariff unification. The traditional feeling of absolute independence, so long enjoyed by them, overcame all other considerations and caused the Hanse Towns—except Lübeck, which gave in its adhesion in 1868—to remain outside the ‘Zollverein’ for many years longer. When the German Empire was founded in 1871, Article 34 of the Constitution specifically allowed them to go on occupying their independent position outside the customs frontier as free ports until such

time as they should themselves ask to be incorporated. The immediately adjoining States were glad of their attitude, as they feared their industrial competition if admitted within the 'Zollverein.' The fundamental cause of their separatist policy was, naturally, explained by their disapproval of the German Protectionist tariff. As they had become really free trading communities they were, of course, decidedly opposed to abandoning their principles and to coming under any protective system. About the year 1877, however, some of their industries began to feel the pressure of the German tariff with which they were surrounded, and the possibility of their being compelled, as members of the German Empire, to pay heavier quotas to its maintenance was a continual source of anxiety to them. In 1879 they protested in the 'Reichstag' against the new policy of the Empire in increasing the duties under the new tariff then put into operation, whereupon Bismarck intimated that the time had come for them to tender a formal request for their commercial incorporation, which had been provided for by the Article 34 of the Constitution. He contended that, under its provision, they could

not indefinitely postpone their adherence to the Customs Union, as the arrangement then entered into was merely a temporary one. The Hanse Towns, on the other hand, maintained that it had established a permanent basis of their relations until they chose to bring it to an end by voluntarily asking for inclusion within the 'Zollverein' limits. The struggle lasted up to 1888. It was only then that all the districts of the two States of Bremen and Hamburg (including the Prussian town of Altona) were finally incorporated, though Bismarck had brought about the inclusion of some portions of their territories before that year by various strong measures. In 1881, when the first agreement with Hamburg was attained providing for its customs unification with the Empire in 1888, it was determined that that town should keep a large free harbour of its own, and the Imperial Government contributed a sum of 2,000,000*l.* towards the cost of its construction. Sea-going ships, travelling to and from it on the Elbe, were to be free from custom regulations of every kind. A similar arrangement was effected at Bremen in 1884, the Imperial Government also paying on

that occasion a sum of 600,000*l.* for the same purpose.

After the conclusion of the 1866 war with Austria over the Schleswig-Holstein question it became evident that the Prussian Government was inclined to adopt a more moderate Protectionist policy than before. Prussia, in her new influential position in the North German Confederation, was generally supported in this new trend of commercial policy. The result was that, after the new commercial treaty lowering many German duties had been made with the Austrian Government, the same reductions were then extended to all countries, and soon afterwards a great movement was started in Germany for moderate free trade, with, however, certain duties for revenue purposes. In 1870 Bismarck brought forward a Tariff Bill on the new lines ; but, owing to the war with France, no definite result ensued until 1873. Imperial commercial policy dates from the conclusion of that successful campaign, after which the new German Empire was established. Article eleven of the Treaty of Frankfort, signed in May 1871, regulated the trade relations of Germany and France on a

permanent basis which was not liable to termination on either side by notice of any kind. All former treaties between the various German States and France had been annulled by the fact of the war, leaving a clear field for fresh arrangements. The basis then agreed upon was a reciprocal most-favoured-nation treatment in all commercial matters, which included not only import and export duties but also all matters affecting through traffic, custom house formalities, and the mutual treatment to be accorded to their representatives and to their subjects. These broad lines of their international relationship were, however, limited in the following respect, that any concessions made under treaty with countries other than Great Britain, Russia, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Switzerland should not be included in this provision. The Frankfort Treaty thus secured to the French Government all such advantages as the German Government might in the future grant to all countries adjacent to her land frontiers and, in addition, to England; and it conferred on Germany a similar right to any privileges that might be conceded by

France to the same six nations. There are persons who consider that it is a mistake for Germany to be bound down by this article of the Frankfort Treaty of Peace, which somewhat hampers tariff negotiations, and they would like to see its abolition. But it is not in the least likely that this will be done. The former Treaty of Navigation and the Agreements concerning railway traffic and copyright were, however, again put into force in 1871.

With the acquisition of the French provinces of Alsace-Lorraine, the cession of which to Germany formed one of the chief conditions of peace, came the question of their practical treatment politically as well as commercially. There were two alternatives: either those rich industrial provinces must form an integral part of the new German Empire, and, therefore, of the 'Zollverein' also, or they must become a territory apart from, and perhaps outside, the German Customs Union but under German rule. If the former course were adopted the rich cotton industries there would prove serious competitors to the cotton manufacturers of Germany. The Government, after mature consideration, decided on

the former step as the wiser for the general interests of the nation. Unsuccessful efforts were made to persuade the French Government to accord specially low duties, so that these provinces might retain part of their former French markets. The competition, however, with German products did not turn out to be so serious eventually, for those industries were found to be displacing English rather than German manufactures. But the effect of the amalgamation of those provinces with Germany was felt later on when the commercial crisis occurred. It was, however, compensated for in later years, when they contributed greatly to extend the foreign commerce of the Empire.

In connection with the Free Trade movement, which had now gone on for some years, there came in 1873 a strong agitation for the suspension of the duties on iron and machinery, leaving only a low one on fine ironware, which ended in a law being passed in that year under which the duties on iron, ironware, and machinery were lowered; and, from 1877 onwards, they were to be admitted duty-free. Bismarck carried the Free Trade principle still

further when he suggested to the 'Reichstag' in 1875 that the number of dutiable articles should be reduced to ten to fifteen only, which suggestion was equivalent to the adoption of the principle of levying duties merely for revenue and not for protective purposes. But people soon began to doubt the efficacy of the new commercial policy, as it had not proved to be the universal panacea that was expected; and then came also a well-defined industrial, commercial, and agricultural depression, especially in the metal trades, the members of which started a strong agitation against the eventual abolition of the iron duties. It was represented that the cause of this arrested prosperity was due to the too free admittance of foreign imports, both industrial and agricultural, into German markets when foreign countries were to a large extent closed to German products by high tariffs. The local over-production in the metal trades would be disastrously affected by the future free admission of iron goods, and that measure would also be contrary to the general interests of the Empire. Protection against English competition was especially demanded, and it was

pointed out that the numbers of tenders secured in the country by British firms were injurious to German manufacturers. In 1876 and 1877 a movement was even set on foot for a reform of the German duties, principally in the direction of greater protection for iron and wares thereof and for cotton yarns. The construction of a new 'autonomous' tariff was also advocated, together with a system of commercial treaties, negotiated on the basis of reciprocity, which should grant certain special reductions of particular duties. Since the establishment of the Empire and the growing tendency to free trade, little had been done in the matter of concluding favourable commercial treaties; and those with Austria, Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland were about to expire. But, in spite of all the growing opposition, the duties on iron, as provided for under the 1873 Law, were abolished on January 1, 1877; there remained, however, a small duty on the finer kinds.

It was then that Free Trade principles reached their highest point in Germany. But almost immediately afterwards Bismarck began to think that a change of commercial

policy would be necessary. Perhaps his chief reason was the state of the finances of the Empire, which for the year 1877-78 were certain to show a considerable deficit, a circumstance that would throw a much heavier burden on each one of the Federated States in the form of an increased quota to the cost of the maintenance of the Empire, which would be serious to their financial position. He was, however, also influenced by the increasing general dissatisfaction with the 'free trading' policy, which was admitting foreign products in such masses, and by the continued hostile attitude of foreign countries with their high protective tariffs. He aimed especially at combating the injuries caused to German industries by the export premium system then in force in some countries, and declared his intention of placing German exports on an equality in that respect. In 1878 an official inquiry was held into the condition of the iron, cotton, and linen trades, and a special Commission was appointed to prepare a reformed tariff. It was then that Bismarck sent his famous letter of December 15, 1878, to the Federal Council dealing with the contemplated

thorough remodelling of the existing tariff policy. He said that this had become unavoidable on account of the unsatisfactory state of the imperial finances, which would also require an extension of indirect taxation to place them on a satisfactory footing. It was also necessary to improve the depressed situation of the home industries, which would for the future be encouraged by protective duties on competing articles and by the free importation of the raw materials required for their development. Such an 'autonomous' tariff would be beneficial to German production and afford it a fair and but moderate advantage over similar foreign imports in the home markets. At the same time it would provide, in the form of a protective tariff, material for negotiation with foreign countries which persisted in maintaining tariffs hostile to German exportation. A special point, then carefully gone into and afterwards adopted with success, was the advisability of fostering certain home products by purely protective duties, levied principally or entirely with that object and not merely for revenue purposes. This effective plan was a good instance of that 'initial pro-

tection' recommended by John Stuart Mill and his school of economists. Together with a revision of the duties, the whole question of railway rates was also attentively considered, as it was shown that that point was often of crucial importance to successful commerce. The principles then laid down and embodied in the reformed tariff law have been in operation ever since. The change brought about was somewhat abrupt from a Free Trade policy, admitting some ninety per cent. of all imports free of duty, to one under which nearly all imported goods would pay duties of some kind.

The struggle between the Free Traders and the Protectionists now became acute, and feeling ran high. But the victory soon lay with the latter party, amid the rejoicings of the industrialists and agriculturists, whose prosperity had been rudely checked in the preceding years. The new customs tariff of July 15, 1879, was characterised by a considerable increase of the then existing duties and by the introduction of many new protective rates in the interests both of industrial and agricultural products; it replaced the

old Customs Law, which was declared in the 'Reichstag' to be no longer consonant either with the economic or financial requirements of the age. That law is still in force, but has, of course, been to some extent modified at different times. The maintenance of the exporting capabilities of the nation was an object that was steadily kept in view by the Government in the reforms effected. With the high tariffs ruling in such countries as Austria-Hungary, France, Russia, and the United States, no extension of Free Trade principles was any longer advisable in Germany; and even the maintenance of the moderate heights to which they had attained became impossible. The Free Traders were especially opposed to the new corn duties, which were then re-introduced after an interval of many years of free importation. They were placed at a very low figure, and were partly established in order to have some basis of negotiation with the neighbouring corn-growing countries of Austria-Hungary and Russia. The former duties on wood were also re-established; and imported cattle and animal products came under the tariff, so that the

agriculturists were satisfied for the time being. The industrialists, on their side, were pleased by the moderate duties on iron goods, chemicals, textiles, and other manufactured imports. The last-mentioned trade, after having retrograded for years, had been making some headway against British competition. Yarns and tissues received an increased amount of protection, sufficient to insure a steady development. Many of the former duties on articles not competing with the home industries were also raised, so as to increase the revenues of the Empire. All these new duties did not come into force immediately ; but by January 1, 1880, the whole of the tariff was in operation. The following provision of the new Customs Law gave an administrative weapon into the hands of the Imperial Government which they had not possessed before, namely the power, when no treaty stipulations to the contrary existed, to place a 'surtaxe' up to 50 per cent. of the amount of the duty on all goods imported from States which treated German ships or goods more unfavourably than those of other nations.

In the course of the next few years several

further increases were made in certain rates of the new tariff, at first on behalf of the industrialists and then in favour of the agriculturists. The newly established duties on grain, cattle, and animal products raised a great deal of resentment in Germany, because they made the necessities of life dearer than before to the people, and on the whole the change effected cannot be said to have immediately brought the population much greater prosperity. The benefits came rather by degrees and chiefly in the form of the increased possibilities of exportation. This tariff caused quite a sensation in Europe. Many foreign powers officially protested against the change, but in vain. France at once raised all her duties, and the high Protectionist movement gained ground everywhere on the Continent. Bismarck, having now obtained a complete protective tariff, set to work to make the most of the new power that the German Government had obtained under it by the acquisition of valuable negotiable assets, especially in the imposition of the new corn duties so objectionable in the eyes of the grain-growing nations of Europe. Armed with these weapons, he

was prepared for tariff warfare and was ready to enter upon it in order to compel certain powers to make satisfactory commercial treaties with the German Empire, the only hindrance being to a certain extent the right of France under the Frankfort Treaty to permanent most-favoured-nation treatment in Germany. He refused to give way to the demands either of Austria-Hungary or of Russia for reductions of the German tariff, and a period of hostile customs measures ensued with those powers. The struggle with the Austrian Government went on for years with various periodical increases of tariffs on both sides, but finally they came to see the advisability of working hand in hand with the German Empire in commercial matters. In 1890 the Austrian and German Emperors met, and a mutually advantageous treaty was concluded in the following year, under which Germany lowered the wheat duties for equivalent concessions on industrial products exported to Austria. An economic union of the two countries was even spoken of at this time, but it did not come to any practical result. The new policy, then adopted by the Imperial Government in this

and in the later commercial treaties, has as its basis the general principle of securing wider foreign markets for German manufactures while admitting from abroad most raw materials, required for the home industries, free of all duty, and allowing the importation of the food-stuffs consumed by the people at low tariff rates. This principle has been maintained ever since in all commercial treaty negotiations. The hostilities with Russia, however, continued for several years longer; both Governments went to extreme lengths in the matter of retaliation. But after the conclusion of the commercial treaty with Austria the German Government, undeterred by the uncompromising attitude of Russia and France in tariff matters, turned their attention to the conclusion of commercial treaties with Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland, a proceeding in which they were assisted by the Austrian Government. They were also impelled to this course by the consideration that in 1892 most of the most-favoured-nation treaties with France would expire, and that the French Government did not intend to renew them, which would result in the

German Empire losing the benefits of the most-favoured-nation treatment to which she was entitled under the clause of the Frankfort Treaty, and be thus excluded from participating to the same extent as before in French commerce and in that of other countries. It was thus that the other tariff treaties, on similar lines to the one concluded with Austria, came about with the above-mentioned three countries. In December 1891 the four treaties were simultaneously presented to the 'Reichstag' by General von Caprivi, who had been named Chancellor in the previous year. Even Bismarck, then only a private personage, disapproved of them and opposed his successor's policy in this matter, declaring that they were an attempt to cause a split between industry and agriculture, and to mix up purely economic interests with questions of foreign policy. He was certainly right as to the dissension that would follow between the industrial and agricultural parties ; for, while the former have invariably praised their working, the latter have unanimously condemned them more and more, thus making the diversity of interests less reconcilable year by year. The Agrarians

vigorously opposed these treaties in the 'Reichstag,' and represented that the lowering of the duties on grain would seriously injure agriculture, and that, as Germany was not merely an industrial State, it was unjust that the sacrifice of the Agrarians should be so much greater than that of the industrialists. But the treaties passed by an enormous majority; and the German Empire thus succeeded in securing for a long term of years the valuable markets of the principal Mid-European States for their surplus industrial products. All these four commercial treaties are still in force and are not terminable before December 31, 1903. The similar later treaties concluded with Servia in 1892 and with Roumania in 1893 are in the same position.

Russia was now left in an isolated position commercially, which, however, did not seriously affect her for a couple of years, as, owing to bad harvests, there was no grain to export. But in 1893 two requests of the Russian Government, firstly for most-favoured-nation treatment and secondly for tariff privileges, similar to those granted to the Austrian Government, were refused; whereupon the

Russian maximum rates were applied to German imports. The Imperial Government then for the first time made use of their power under the 1879 Customs Law and imposed the 50 per cent. 'surtaxe' on imports from Russia, which country then promptly raised its duties still further. But in the long run Russian agricultural interests suffered more than German industries, a circumstance that caused negotiations to be commenced in 1893, which ended in the signature of the tariff treaty of 1894 (also lasting until December 31, 1903), when mutual concessions were granted. This treaty, with its reduction of the German duties on Russian agricultural products, offended the Agrarians, who said that it was iniquitous that these commercial treaties should benefit foreign produce at the expense of home agriculture.

Since that period of tariff treaties no change has taken place in the commercial policy of the Imperial Government; but in 1895, during the tariff warfare with Spain which had gone on since the rejection by the Spanish Cortes in 1894 of the treaty made in the previous year, an important law was passed

under which the Government obtained the right to use on such occasions more severe retaliatory measures than those allowed by the 1879 Customs Law. It was now provided that those dutiable goods coming from such States as treated German ships or commodities more unfavourably than those of other nations were liable to have placed upon them a 'sur-tax' up to 100 per cent. of the amount of the duty imposed on entry by the customs tariff, so long as there were no treaty provisions to the contrary in existence; and that goods which were admitted free of duty by the tariff were liable, in the same circumstances, to be subjected to a duty up to twenty per cent. of their value. This power was at once made use of against the Spanish Government, and it compelled them to come to terms. The whole tariff system of the commercial relations of the German Empire with foreign countries now rests on the general 'autonomous' tariff, first established by the Customs Law of 1879, and on the tariff treaties of the nineties with Austria-Hungary, Italy, Belgium, Switzerland, Servia, Roumania, and Russia. One other earlier similar treaty, that with Greece in 1884,

is also still in force. This 'autonomous' tariff is applied to all countries equally ; deviations from it only exist for such nations as have tariff treaties, or treaties containing the most-favoured-nation clause, entitling them to similar reductions in the matter of duties. Such deviations are termed 'treaty' rates. At the present time treaties of one kind or another exist with all the European powers, except Portugal and Great Britain (which, however, enjoys temporarily most-favoured-nation treatment under special laws and ordinances of the 'Bundesrath'), and with the majority of extra-European nations ; so that, with some exceptions, the German Empire may be said to trade with the world on the basis of the 'treaty' rates or lower conventional tariff.

The Mid-European tariff treaties appear to have had a satisfactory influence on the development of German commerce in late years. But the Agrarians are more than ever dissatisfied with their working, and insist that the just claims of agriculture must be better recognised. They have even gone so far as to demand that these treaties shall be cancelled. The Imperial Government have,

on several recent occasions, declared that their claims shall obtain adequate recognition in the new customs tariff. The present Chancellor of the Empire has distinctly promised them increased corn duties in the future, so as to relieve the alleged distressed state of the agricultural community, and considerable increases on many agricultural products have been inserted in the Government Customs and Tariff Bill laid before the ' Reichstag ' in 1901. With some modifications in that direction, and with a good many increased duties on competing industrial imports, it is likely that the commercial policy, initiated by the 1879 tariff and completed by the principles embodied in the commercial treaties of the nineties, will continue after the end of the year 1903, though all parties are by no means unanimous in desiring a continuation of the present system.

CHAPTER VI

TRAFFIC POLICY

THE amount of attention paid to the question of the development of traffic facilities has always had a far-reaching effect on the material prosperity of all nations. This is a subject that has received the closest consideration in Germany during the latter part of the nineteenth century. Previously to 1866, when the North German Confederation was established under the leadership of Prussia, little could be done to improve the then unsatisfactory conditions, for it was impossible to work out any mutually advantageous scheme, either of railways or of waterways, so long as the individual interests of the German States were so loosely united together by a federative bond, such as that of the Germanic Confederation which had been in existence since 1815. Each State had worked more or less independently in such

matters ; but with the impetus given to all forms of national development by the activity of the Prussian Government, who dominated the situation in the new North German Confederation, a vista of possibilities was opened out, of which every advantage was taken. And by the foundation of the German Empire in 1871 still further opportunities for a uniform development of means of transport were secured. The Governments of the German States have always systematically favoured a combined network of railways and canals, in the conviction that a combination of both was desirable in the interests of the whole nation. The Constitution of the Empire now provides for a certain amount of uniformity both as regards railways and waterways. The practicability of both means of transport working well together and for their mutual advantage is generally recognised, the waterways relieving the railway system of part of the heavy traffic in bulky goods which do not require rapid carriage. This is especially the case in Prussia, where the Minister of Public Works has declared that a further extension of the canal system is absolutely necessary, as otherwise

the existing railways can no longer deal satisfactorily with the enormously increasing traffic.

Both the railways and canals are now great State undertakings. It is an accepted principle that the promotion of their development is one of the most important functions of the Imperial Government, as also of the separate Governments of the Federated States (especially in Prussia and Bavaria), who, working in unison, not only devote all their energies to effect this object, but, what is more to the point, also grant large sums of public moneys for the purpose. From a military point of view, both railways and waterways are matters of extreme importance. The fact of their both being in the hands of the State is especially advantageous to a nation like Germany, so surrounded, except on the north, by foreign powers with large armies. Many lines have been built merely for strategic purposes ; and every extension of water communications, particularly those available for steamer traffic, is of considerable value in times of mobilisation and warfare to free the railways for the transport of armies and their many requisites.

The construction of railways in Germany

was initiated by private enterprise, which eventually overcame the opposition with which such undertakings were at first met by the various German Governments. Besides the political difficulties of the situation at the beginning, the unreasonable jealousies of rival railway systems as to all forms of economic advancement were so marked in some States as to make it impossible, for many years, to obtain trunk lines of communication throughout Germany. This spirit of rivalry sometimes caused an intervening State to refuse to its neighbours a railway connection through its territories which was essential to a due development of traffic facilities. Such circumstances long delayed railway expansion. A proposed line for the conveyance of coal near the Rhine in 1826 failed to obtain the necessary official sanction. It was not until some ten years later that any railways were actually built. The first one was constructed in Bavaria in 1835 from Nuremberg to Fürther; others followed in Saxony, from Leipzig to Dresden, and in Prussia, from Berlin to Potsdam, in 1837 and 1838 respectively. Thus a commencement was made as

an experiment to test the innovation, which at that time was still viewed with considerable mistrust. In the latter year a fourth line was built in Brunswick, but by the Government, as it had not been possible to obtain capital for the undertaking by a private company. This was the first German State Railway. Its management was also undertaken by them, because they considered that such a course was the best in the interests of the whole community. Their policy, however, found no echo in the rest of Germany until 1840, when the Baden and Nassau Governments also constructed State lines. All the Southern States then followed suit in the course of the next few years, though there was a reaction in some of them at a later period, as in Bavaria proper in 1856, when all the railways came into private hands. This was not the case in the Bavarian Palatinate, where the system of private companies had always existed. Already in these early days some Governments considered it inadvisable, at any rate as regards the main lines, to consent to their ownership by private companies, on the ground that the latter would be inclined to consider their own particular

interests rather than those of the general public. But in some cases the immediate reason for the final adoption of the State railway system was, as in Brunswick, the financial one that the private capital was not forthcoming.

In the Kingdom of Prussia the circumstances were somewhat different. The first line of 1838 was a private one ; its relations to the State were strictly laid down in the law of November 3 of that year, containing the terms of the concession, in which there were special provisions for its effective control by the Prussian Government in all matters affecting public interests, such as general management, traffic arrangements, and the nature of the obligatory services to be rendered to the State. The Government had, moreover, the important right of repurchasing the line. At that time it was not possible for Prussia to construct railways, as the capital required could not be obtained by Government loans. The reason was that, according to a law of 1820, no loan could be negotiated by the Government without the consent of the legislative bodies which were to have been established under it, but

which did not yet exist at the beginning of the railway era. In 1842, however, the Prussian Government was authorised to guarantee interest, as it was found that without it private enterprise would not continue to undertake the construction of the necessary lines. From 1849 onwards the Prussian State, realising the importance of extending the railway system, began to build extensively ; and the ' railway tax ' of 1853, which was soon imposed, enabled a certain pressure to be put upon the private companies' lines in order to compel a proper use of their limited monopolies. Its original object was to gradually obtain funds wherewith to buy out the railways in private hands ; but these were soon diverted to other objects. Bismarck, in the sixties, seems to have been in favour of the maintenance of the railways in the hands of private persons.

In 1866 the extensive State lines already existing in Nassau, Hanover, and Hesse-Cassel were added to the Prussian network by the annexation of those countries. A further important addition to the State railways of Germany was made again in 1871 by the addition of all the railways of the appropriated

French provinces of Alsace-Lorraine, for which, however, 13,175,000*l.* was paid to the French Government out of the war indemnity of 200,000,000*l.* The revenue derived from them goes to the Imperial Exchequer; they are administered by a special railway office, whose chief is the Prussian Minister of Public Works, and are subject to general imperial control like all other State railways. From 1866 onwards the belief in the necessity of nationalisation began to gain ground amongst many classes, but the majority of people were still in favour of private ownership.

At this time and during the next few years the state of the railway system in Germany was most unsatisfactory, as there was no kind of uniformity, and much rivalry existed among the far too numerous small systems. There were State lines in some countries, private ones in others, and in the rest there was a mixture of both. There was much discontent on all sides on account of the private companies' tariffs and abuse of power, especially in the case of lines to which concessions had been granted in order to cope with the great increase of traffic which followed upon the conclusion of

the Franco-German war. Such considerations induced the statesmen of the new Empire to try to bring about a nationalisation of the railways all over Germany in the hands of the Imperial Government, an idea that met with much approval, but which eventually it was found to be impossible to realise, although the lines acquired in Alsace-Lorraine and owned by the Empire by direct right of purchase offered such an exceptional opportunity of becoming the nucleus of an imperial railway system. The first attempt to effect a community of interests in railway matters for the whole Empire dates back to the draft Constitution of a German Empire, elaborated by the Frankfort Assembly in 1849, but which was never put into force. It provided for imperial supervision and legislation in such matters, and gave power to construct lines even in recalcitrant States. Similar provisions were embodied in the Constitution of the North German Confederation in 1866, as also in that of the present German Empire in 1871. The Kingdom of Bavaria, however, was then specially exempted from its operation as regards its railways, the Imperial Government

having only the right of interference in those matters affecting questions of national defence, whereas in all other Federated States they also superintend the whole of the general traffic arrangements, all the lines being worked as one system and on identical principles. The Constitution of the Empire has a special section dealing with this question, of which the chief provisions are the following: lines deemed necessary for the defence of Germany or for the general interests can be built, under the authority of an imperial law, even though their construction be opposed by any single Federated State. The demands of the imperial officials, concerning the use of the railroads for purposes of national defence, have to be obeyed, and all military persons and war material have to be transported at reduced rates. All the Governments undertake to manage the railways in the interests of common traffic. The Imperial Government has to see that the lines and their appurtenances are kept in good condition; and they control all railway rates, which are to be made as uniform and as low as possible, especially for the transport of coal, coke, wood, ore, stone,

salt, pig iron, manure, and similar articles required by persons occupied in agricultural or industrial undertakings. The lowest charge was then put at 2·2 Pfennige (about a farthing) per ton-kilometre ; but lower rates than that have since been accorded by the State Railway Administration. A remarkable article in the Constitution further provides that in times of distress, and particularly when necessities of life become dearer, all the Railway Administrations are bound to introduce special rates for the conveyance of wheat, flour, grains in pods, and potatoes, low enough to afford the requisite amount of relief. The Imperial Government, on the recommendation of a committee of the ' Bundesrath,' can fix such rates, which, however, are not to be lower than those ruling for raw products on the railway in the affected district. All the rights conferred on the Empire by the 1871 Constitution with regard to railways are exercised by the ' Imperial Railway Office,' which is quite separate from the ' Imperial Bureau for the Administration of Railways ' that actually works the lines in Alsace-Lorraine belonging to the Empire.

In the efforts to unite more closely Northern and Southern Germany the railway question had already played a considerable part during the existence of the North German Confederation. Attempts had been made about 1869 by the then Prime Minister of Bavaria, Prince Hohenlohe (afterwards Imperial Chancellor), to organise a community of interests among the Federated Governments in the form of a Railway Union, on lines somewhat similar to those of the Commercial Union. Bismarck, on behalf of Prussia, had favoured in 1875 a common system of all the German railways under imperial control. To facilitate this project the Prussian Government, in 1876, even passed a law empowering the sale of their State lines to the Empire, and the conveyance to it of all rights in railway matters for a certain sum. But the other larger Federated States opposed the project and absolutely declined to surrender their independence in such matters; so that, instead of one uniform network of imperial lines, there resulted a nationalisation of railways, but in the form of several separate State systems. Bismarck had

then to abandon his original plan ; and, as no common system with the other States of the Empire was possible, the Prussian Government set to work to consolidate their own State railways, and began in 1879 to buy up the chief private lines, a proceeding that was to a great extent accomplished by 1896 through the Prussian Ministry of Public Works ; but the process has gone on until, in 1900, the total was close on 18,846 miles, which, however, includes the small Hessian system now also incorporated with the Prussian network.

The change in Prussia from private to State lines was not brought about only by political and strategic reasons, but also by the conviction that the nationalisation of the railways was essential to assist the future commercial and industrial expansion. The result of this policy has, in conjunction with other economic factors, indeed exercised an extraordinary influence in assisting the expansion of commerce and industries. An important effect has been a simplification of freights, as well as their greater uniformity and cheapness. These were conditions which

Bismarck, soon after the foundation of the German Empire, realised were necessary precedents to any proper development of the country's resources, especially in view of the general industrial depression prevailing in Europe. He was further influenced by the strong representations made by mercantile associations, who loudly complained of the general inefficiency of the railway administration ; and they pointed out that the monopoly system on a trading basis had become detrimental to the public interests, as the companies had got the public completely in their power, and that competition, when the railways combined in the interests of the monopoly holders, was no longer any protection against unjust oppression of the general community. The State system has also brought about other advantages, such as the construction of lines for developing certain districts which in themselves would be unremunerative, and the direct assistance often given by exceptionally low freights to certain branches of commerce, industry, and agriculture, with some limitations as to destination. This particular form of policy, more popularly

known as the granting of 'preferential rates,' but better designated by the term 'exceptional rates,' is a marked feature of the Prussian State railway system, particularly in the direction of facilitating cheap exportation. As long ago as 1884 it was publicly stated that the particular object of such reduced freights was to foster both agricultural and industrial undertakings by exceptionally low charges for the transport of the materials required by them. It was further stated that they were intended to assist both the home manufacturers, who had to compete with foreign imported goods, and the exporters in their trade abroad. These rates, moreover, were to assist German ports in competing with those in neighbouring countries, and to further the interests of the railways and waterways in competition with those of other nations. It was also distinctly stated that these exceptional tariffs would only be extended to foreign goods if no injury would thereby be inflicted on a home competing enterprise. An extensive use has been made of these rights in order to increase the productive power of Germany, as well as to

promote its commercial interests by land and sea. In some cases a system of combined low 'exceptional rates' by the State railways and by special lines of steamer companies has been established to foreign countries under which new and extending markets have been opened up for the benefit of the export trade of the Empire.

The relationship of railway policy to the general economic policy of any Government is a vital one to the welfare of the people. Herein lies the importance of nationalisation, which enables the working powers of the network of lines to be used to the best advantage for the furtherance of the prosperity of the whole nation. The principles of the present policy consist in attempting to obtain, under the authority of the Constitution, as large an amount of uniformity as possible, a programme which is carried out by the officials of the Imperial Railway Office established in 1873, the only product of Bismarck's effort to obtain an imperial nationalisation of all railways. Several attempts to pass laws regulating their relation to the Empire in a more satisfactory manner have so far failed because of the

determined opposition of some of the smaller States, who see in such a step the complete domination of Prussia in railway matters. But, even under the present circumstances, that State is bound to control all Northern Germany in this respect, for the small countries in the north could not possibly follow an independent line without injury to themselves.

At the present time in all the federated countries of Germany, State railways largely predominate. It is only in the Bavarian Palatinate that a system of purely private railways still exists. Their total length in the whole Empire in 1899 was comparatively insignificant, being only 2,364 miles out of a total of 30,422 of broad-gauge lines. The German Government railways are almost entirely State-owned, but a very small proportion consists of private lines worked by the State. The total capital expended on them was some 620,150,000*l.*, yielding gross receipts to the amount of 97,300,000*l.* and leaving a net surplus of 37,550,000*l.* after paying all the working expenses, or over 6 per cent. on the invested capital. (For some details of rail-

way finances from 1872 to 1900, see Chapter X. on 'German Finances.') There are besides the narrow-gauge railways, about 1,063 miles in length, of which over one half are in private hands. They are being much extended on all sides, often with a certain amount of assistance from the various Governments. The statistics on other forms of light railways in the Empire give 1,813 miles of street tramways, mostly electric; and of other kinds there appear to be some 2,847 miles already working. There has been a remarkable development of electric traction of all kinds in recent years, which will certainly increase rapidly in the future, as the practical application of electrical power is more advanced in Germany than in any other European country. The first train in Europe driven by electricity was shown at Berlin in 1879, and the first actual railway was built at Lichterfelde two years later. For some time past the broad-gauge line from Berlin to Zehlendorf, some seven miles distant, has been worked by electricity, but with apparently no saving in operating expenses as compared with steam power.

As regards Prussia only, the construction

of local light railways to open up agricultural districts has been directly aided by the State under various recent laws, as it became evident that, without financial assistance of some kind, from Provincial and State funds, a sufficiency of lines would not be built. But they have always been and still remain essentially private enterprises. Altogether no less than 1,450,000*l.* have been granted out of the Prussian Railway Budgets for the purpose of subsidising to some extent the construction of lines deemed necessary in the interests of the public. The Agrarian Party have invariably contended that the development of the agricultural resources by such means should form no unimportant part of home politics. At the present time there are 320 different lines of a total length of 4,513 miles either already working or sanctioned, which means a seven-fold expansion since 1892.

There has been a complete community of railway interests between the Grand Duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt and the Kingdom of Prussia from 1897 onwards; so that the latter State now not only commands Northern Germany, but has also obtained a strong influence in the

south, which may in the future lead to a great extension of the idea of an imperial railway system, as formerly advocated without success by Bismarck. In the treaty regulating this particular arrangement, as in all other concessions of private railways, provisions were inserted providing that the railway systems of both countries could be handed over to the Empire at some future date. Since this amalgamation the finances of both have been dealt with as a whole, and appear in the Budget of the Kingdom of Prussia only, the profits being divided. The working results and all other matters concerning them are published as those of a single undertaking, with the exception of returns dealing with the capital invested in them, their debt, and questions of its amortisation and interest. Both States have benefited financially. The length of lines in Prussia in 1900 (April 1) was 18,846 miles, an increase of 27 per cent. since 1890 ; that of Hesse-Darmstadt has a mileage of 590. The capital that has been invested in all Prussian State railways by 1899 was 390,550,091*l.* ; that of the Hessian portion of the amalgamation was, further, 12,369,805*l.* The amount of

the Prussian Public Debt on account of the nationalisation of the railways up to that year had been 370,010,663*l.* altogether; but the actual outstanding remainder at that date was 220,566,149*l.*, or about 40 per cent. of the original outlay, requiring a yearly payment of 8,118,936*l.* as interest. The net proceeds going as revenue to the Prussian Government were 28,170,922*l.*, or over $7\frac{1}{4}$ per cent., after paying the working expenses, which amounted to 38,816,819*l.* The Imperial Government, under the Constitution, has the general control over tariff rates, and their duty is to endeavour to obtain as much uniformity and as low rates as possible. They have not, however, the power of enforcing any reductions on the Federated Governments; they can only use their influence to bring this about. All tariff matters, however, have to be brought to their cognizance. The right that they have to deal with traffic regulations does not extend to actually fixing general freight rates. It is only in the case of certain necessities of life becoming very dear, in times of scarcity, that this can be done temporarily. The transport rates, therefore, are not necessarily uniform in

the different States, though to a great extent they have become so. The 1871 Constitution was chiefly concerned, as regards freight rates, in facilitating through traffic from one State to another; even such rights as exist under it do not, it must be remembered, apply to the Kingdom of Bavaria. Since 1893, when the 'International Agreement for Goods Traffic' came into force between the German Empire, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, France, Italy, The Netherlands, Luxemburg, Russia, and Switzerland (Denmark was included in 1897), international goods traffic with Germany has been much facilitated by the introduction of uniform through bills of lading and by the common regulations then adopted.

In the Kingdom of Prussia the rates for passengers are low, the charge per mile for first, second, third, and fourth class for ordinary trains, being respectively 1·52*d.*, 1·14*d.*, 0·76*d.*, and 0·38*d.* (8, 6, 4, 2 Pfennige per kilometre). Workmen and soldiers are conveyed at a cost of 0·19*d.*, about $\frac{1}{5}$ penny, per mile (1 Pfennig per kilometre). On express trains the price is rather higher, namely, 1·71*d.*, 1·26*d.*, and 0·88*d.* a mile for first, second, and third class. In

the decade 1889 to 1899 the number of passengers carried rose from 235 to nearly 554 millions, yielding, however, only about 67 per cent. more revenue, or altogether a total of 17,269,853*l.* in consequence of the reduction of fares. Similarly, freight rates have fallen, except in a few cases, from an average of almost $\frac{1}{3}\frac{5}{2}$ *d.* (3·81 Pfennige) in 1889 to one of nearly $\frac{1}{3}\frac{4}{2}$ *d.* (3·55 Pfennige) in 1899 per ton-kilometre. The quantity of goods transported rose during the same period from 118,640,527 to 199,927,390 tons, the number of ton-kilometres traversed rising from $14\frac{1}{2}$ to over $23\frac{3}{4}$ billions, bringing a total yield of 43,013,129*l.* in the latter year.

In conclusion, attention must be drawn to the experiments that have for some time past been made with special electrical cars which have been run from Berlin to Zossen at a speed of $99\frac{1}{2}$ miles per hour, which it is hoped to gradually increase to one of 125 to 150. The trials are being conducted by a society which is practically investigating the possibility of building electrical railroads in the future.

We now turn to the question of waterways. The natural advantages offered by

Germany for water-carriage are considerable, but they have been vastly increased by artificial works of all kinds undertaken by the State, not by private companies or persons. One may say that the network of canals and the improved inland water communications all over the country are entirely due to public enterprise on the part of the various Federated Governments concerned, for only some fifty-four miles are in private hands. The Constitution of the Empire provided that, on all the natural waterways, the only dues leviable should be for the utilisation of special institutions tending to facilitate traffic; and that they, as also the dues on artificial waterways owned by the State, should not exceed the reimbursement of the cost of setting up and of maintaining those facilities. These limitations have had an important effect in keeping down the cost of water transport for the public, especially on the canals, which, had they been in the hands of private companies, would certainly not have levied rates as low as those which have generally obtained under State administration.

In the past immense sums have been

spent on the canals and canalisation of rivers. By the year 1892 it was claimed that nearly all the waterways had been rendered available for steamer traffic, a most important point for the requirements of modern canal traffic. Some idea of the work undertaken by the State can be obtained from considering the total amount expended by the Government out of Prussian Budgets for such objects from 1890 to 1899. They amounted to 21,198,035*l.* altogether for the ten years, of which 7,391,175*l.* consisted of recurring expenses, 6,173,470*l.* of non-recurring expenditure, and 7,633,390*l.* of sums raised by loans under special laws. In Germany it is considered that canals are effective factors for the quickening of a nation's economic development. Moreover, they also often offer considerable advantages in the direction of supplying water for the improvement of the adjacent lands. The present length of natural and artificial waterways is 8,798 miles, of which 5,776 are natural rivers, 1,451 are canalised streams, and 1,571 are canals. Of the above total length 7,647 miles have a depth of over one metre. These figures include the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal

opened in 1895, which, quite apart from its important strategic value to the German navy, is becoming a great waterway for sea-borne commerce between the Baltic and the North Sea. The length of the recently opened Dortmund-Ems Canal is also taken into account.

The extension and improvement of the inland communications by water has been much assisted in the past by the work of a Society founded in 1869, and also, since 1885, by periodical meetings of the 'International Inland Waterways Congress,' which considers the technical and economic side of all questions affecting them. The larger part of the canal system lies in Prussia, where politicians, at an early date, came to the conclusion that a network of waterways ought, in the common interests of the nation, to be directly controlled by the State, while leaving all affairs appertaining to the actual shipping in the hands of private persons or companies, a policy that has since been invariably followed. It is considered inexpedient to leave such important matters entirely subject to private ownership. The improvements effected in the last

quarter of a century have been extraordinary. The key to the present importance of the position of inland water navigation in Germany is to be found in the fact that most of the waterways are now available for steamer traffic, for it was soon seen that water transport by small boats with slow haulage of the old type was useless for modern requirements and could not attempt to compete in any way with railway traffic. Many and great have been the changes effected in connection with this fundamental alteration. A few large and deep locks have replaced the former numerous small ones ; steamers up to 450 or 600 tons can now traverse most of the principal canals, whereas formerly only quite small vessels could travel on them ; and extensive improvements have been made in the carrying capacity of the rivers. Ships of over 2,000 tons can now navigate the Rhine, the average size being about 1,500, whereas it was only some 400 tons not many years ago. All the most modern improvements connected with water carriage have been introduced on the German waterways. Such are some of the effects of a carefully studied development of the country's

requirements of inland communications by its Government, where all the resources of modern science have been applied to resolve many difficult problems of navigation. The latest improvement is the establishment of a satisfactory system of electrical haulage on the Teltow Canal, where no other form of propulsion is to be allowed.

There came before the Prussian Landtag in 1899 and 1901 an important scheme of the Government for the construction, at a cost of 19,450,000*l.*, of a great Midland Canal, with branches, which is to connect the rivers Rhine, Weser, Elbe, and Oder, so as to facilitate a cheaper transport of heavy goods, the general direction being a line almost due East and West from a point near Düsseldorf on the Rhine to Frankfort on the Oder *viâ* Berlin. This scheme would enable ships of 600 to 800 tons to go from the Rhine to Stettin, and vessels of 400 to reach the Oder. The result of joining the Dortmund-Ems Canal to the Rhine system would be to give that river an outlet to the sea *viâ* the German port of Emden instead of the only egress being, as hitherto, through ports situated in Holland. The object

of this proposed undertaking is to benefit the grain-growers in the Eastern Provinces and the industrial manufacturers of the West, who, it is alleged, would mutually profit by putting them in direct water communication with one another, whereby the canal freights would then be only about one third of the present railway rates. This project has been twice submitted to the Prussian House of Deputies in different forms, but has so far not met with universal support, and its fate in the future is awaited with interest. In fact there has been strong opposition at work, especially on the part of the Agrarian Party, which makes its final adoption a matter of some doubt. The land-owners interested in the agricultural prosperity of the country argue that, although a further extension of waterways would directly benefit some districts by the cheaper carriage afforded, it would also at the same time permit of more reasonable transport to inland places of the inevitably large imports of foreign corn which enter the Empire, thereby lowering the home prices, to the general detriment of the home producers. They are, therefore, now inclined to make the concession of higher corn duties at

the end of 1903, when the existing commercial treaties can be terminated, a preliminary condition to their support of the Midland Canal Bill.

The majority of the community, however, whose interests lie in the many industries, are naturally strongly in favour of all steps tending to cheapen the transport both of the heavy raw materials required by them and of their bulky finished manufactures. Every extension of the network of cheap water communications in the future will also directly benefit the exporters of many industrial and mining products, and thus still further facilitate competition in neutral markets with the similar products of other foreign countries. It is also hoped that, in the course of time, the Moselle river may be canalised so as to effect a satisfactory communication between the French and German canal systems.

Finally, it may be mentioned that there are other schemes advocated by an 'Austro-German Society of Inland Waterways' which would be of great international importance, if ever carried out—namely, for the construction of a Mid-European Canal connecting the Elbe and Oder with the Danube, so as to afford a

through water carriage from the North Sea and the Baltic to the Black Sea. There is even an idea of joining the Baltic to the Adriatic by a navigable waterway from Stettin to Fiume. It will thus be seen that, in the German Empire, all questions affecting transport by inland waterways are very much to the fore, and that they are likely in the future to occupy the attention of the German Governments and of the public even more than in the past.

CHAPTER VII

COLONIAL POLICY

THE status of the German Empire as a Colonial Power is of very recent date. Up to the year 1884 the Imperial Government had invariably declined to accept any responsibilities whatever with regard to territorial acquisitions by German subjects outside the limits of the Empire. They were always ready to uphold the rights of a subject in all parts of the world, and to afford him the due protection of which he might personally stand in need; but they would not take the further step of throwing the ægis of their protection over any tracts of country that might be in his possession. All attempts to induce the Government to take over protectorates of any kind had failed, a policy that must have been sometimes regretted in later years when the acquisition of colonial

possessions became a much more difficult matter. As early as 1867 German protection was refused to the Sultan of Witu. A similar course was pursued in later times between the years 1874 and 1877, notably with regard to Zanzibar, the Sulu Islands (to which North Borneo also then belonged), the German settlements in West Africa, and the Transvaal. This policy of non-intervention in the affairs of distant places was, however, perfectly comprehensible in the early days of the Empire, when all the forces of the newly created nation had to be concentrated on the difficult work of knitting more closely together the various German States, now united for a common end, and in providing them with adequate defences against neighbouring powers, no easy task when one remembers the long line of frontier and its exposure to attack on three sides. But with the rapid concentration of power and the increased feeling of security the attendant circumstances were modified ; and other considerations came into play which permitted German politicians to look outside Europe and to give their attention to the necessities of the Empire in the future, which might then, like

many other powers, require the advantages offered by colonial possessions.

The formal adoption of a colonial policy in 1884 was, therefore, an entirely new departure, prompted by reasons of State and hastened on by unforeseen events in Africa, where it was alleged that the legitimate interests of German subjects were being adversely affected by the colonial policy of Great Britain. It is to be presumed that the statesmen who framed the Constitution of the new Empire in 1871 had anticipated the possibility of a future colonial policy, for Article 4 provides that regulations affecting colonisation are under the control of the Empire and its laws. It is true that the immediate intention of that wording was to enable the acquisition of naval stations which would be required some day, but it was also, no doubt, intended to cover all matters connected with eventual colonial undertakings. For many years the attention of the public had been drawn to colonisation enterprises by the foundation of several societies for the furtherance of German interests in various parts of the world. Already large numbers of merchants were to be found in

most civilised countries ; and thousands of settlers had founded business and trading establishments in distant non-civilised regions which had hitherto not come under the dominion of any European power. Moreover, the famous Hanse Towns, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck, with their restless mercantile activity in foreign lands, had done much in the past to familiarise Germans with the possibilities of colonial undertakings under private management.

One of the immediate causes of the Imperial Government becoming especially interested in this subject was the great drain on the population which was occasioned by this large emigration to foreign parts. In the single year, 1881, this exodus had amounted to 223,000 persons, or to over $4\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. of the total population of the German Empire, and the number in the following year was almost as great. From 1881 to 1883 the net loss to the nation was close on 600,000 people, of whom the great majority emigrated to the United States. Most of them were lost to the Empire as citizens, though often remaining purely German in character in their many adopted

lands. The action of the Government in adopting a colonial policy was largely influenced by the natural desire to divert a portion of this emigration to districts where not only their national character but also their nationality might be retained instead of being perpetually lost or irretrievably merged in foreign countries. The adoption of such a course, if compatible with other imperative national needs, would be in the true interests of the German Empire in the future and would secure a more rapid growth of imperial power. Bismarck himself was not, however, at first much in sympathy with the colonial movement, as he was opposed to the idea of an organised emigration, and was of opinion that a German 'who cast off his Fatherland' was not worth retaining as a subject. It was only gradually that—moved, no doubt, by national considerations of future expansion—he was won over to support the cause of colonial aspirations at all, and even then he held that such enterprises should be undertaken and managed by private persons, and not by the Imperial Government. His views were strong on this point, as is shown by his own

statement, at the time when an official colonial policy was initiated, that the intention of the Government was not to found provinces, but merely business enterprises.

Opinions in Germany were divided as to the advisability of the Government embarking on this new policy. The advantages from an economic point of view were alleged to be that new territories would be secured which in the future would be capable, not only of absorbing surplus population, but also of producing some of the raw materials required for the development of the growing industries, as well as some of the food-stuffs consumed by the German people. It was also represented that useful openings would be afforded for the employment of German capital; and that mercantile enterprise generally with new countries would be greatly encouraged. The acquisition of colonial possessions would also enable the Imperial Government, for the first time, to take an active part outside Europe in international affairs suitable to their position as a great continental power, and contribute to make their increasing influence felt in political matters affecting continents other than their

own. There was, however, much opposition to this new trend in imperial policy, the majority of the people being against it. In the 'Reichstag,' also, many parties were not favourably disposed towards the innovation; others were absolutely hostile, and considered any colonial policy at all to be a mistake, as it would entangle the Government in responsibilities outside the limits of the Empire for which there was no necessity whatever. But considerations of State expediency eventually prevailed, and a colonial policy was finally initiated in the case of a German settlement in Angra Pequena, on the south-west coast of Africa, owned by Herr Lüderitz, over which a protectorate was first proclaimed in 1884, although it had already been sought for in vain by him two years previously. In no former instance had rights of sovereignty been claimed outside the Empire for the numerous similar German settlements in many parts of the world, and the ostensible reason in this case was merely that some prompt action was necessary if Germany was to exercise due influence in protecting her interests on the African continent against those of other

European nations. For there was at that time an active delimitation of spheres of interest going on among certain European powers in order to bring under their influence as much territory as possible in Africa. In the formal notification to foreign powers of the creation of this first imperial protectorate, it was stated that the immediate object was an effective protection of German commerce. The British Government were at this time also informed that, whenever asked for, imperial protection would in the future be granted wherever German settlements were found to be established on territories not hitherto claimed by other countries; and that any existing treaties, made by persons in such settlements, would be upheld so long as they did not infringe the rights of third parties. Some objections which the British Government made at first to the creation of this south-west African protectorate were afterwards waived. One of them was based on the fear that a German penal settlement would be placed there in too close proximity to Cape Colony.

A course was thus embarked upon which during the same year resulted further in the

hoisting of the German flag, not only in the Camaroons and Togoland in Africa, but also in New Guinea and the adjacent islands in the Western Pacific Ocean. The 'Hinterland,' opposite the island of Zanzibar, on the east coast of Africa, was soon afterwards taken over, leaving, however, intact the narrow strip of land along the seashore which belonged to the Sultan of Zanzibar. The Sultanate of Witu also came under German rule at this time. All Damaraland and the coast territory to the south, down to the Orange River, were added to the earlier acquisitions of the South-West African Protectorate in 1885; and several of the Solomon Islands, near New Guinea, were secured in 1886. In 1887 the Marshall Islands were also placed under Germany's protection.

Shortly after the assumption of these new colonial possessions it was found inexpedient to continue the plan adopted by Bismarck of a *laissez faire* administration by private companies under charter, and the Imperial Government, in the interests of the protectorates, stepped in and took over the reins of government. This had, indeed, been necessary

in some cases from the commencement, as, for instance, in the Camaroons and in Togoland, where the resident merchants could not be induced to constitute the requisite company to carry on the administration. Another good reason for such action was to be found in cases where a private company's concession did not cover the whole of the district protected by the German Empire, as occurred in the territories of South-West and East Africa, which were eventually taken over by officials of the Empire in 1885 and 1891 respectively. The duties of the Government as to the suppression of the slave trade, resulting from the Brussels Anti-slavery Conference of 1889-90, also made it advisable that they should themselves administrate all the African protectorates. In 1889 the Government of Northern New Guinea and of the adjacent islands was also taken over, but reverted to the private company again for a period of years, after which, in 1899, it finally came entirely under imperial control. The Empire has now absolute rights of sovereignty throughout all the protectorates, except in those few cases where special treaties with native chiefs may

limit that power. In some places rights of ownership were obtained from private German proprietors ; in others treaties, acquiring territorial rights and other privileges, were made with the native inhabitants. And in a few cases the existing private companies received special charters from the German Government. Some of these protectorates, in consequence of not being effectively occupied and administered throughout their length and breadth, were more in the nature of spheres of interest. Much later acquisitions were the islands of Upolu and Savai in the Samoan group in 1898, by virtue of special treaties with Great Britain and the United States ; the Caroline, Marianne, and Pelew Islands, purchased from Spain in 1899 after the termination of the disastrous war with North America ; and the district of Kiaochow, which was leased in 1898 from the Chinese Government under treaty for a term of ninety-nine years. The inclusion of the former English possession of Heligoland within the limits of the German Empire in 1890 and its subsequent incorporation with the Kingdom of Prussia does not properly fall under the head of colonial acquisitions, although it was

effected under treaty in connection with negotiations concerning Anglo-German colonial questions in Africa. There are other islands and places where there were considerable German interests, which might have come under imperial dominion but which did not do so owing to various circumstances. Such are the Fiji Islands, annexed by Great Britain in 1874; the island of Tonga, where the Germans in 1876 acquired the right to a harbour and to some territory for the purposes of a coaling station for the navy, rights which were ceded to the British Government in 1899 by the Agreement concerning the Samoan Islands between England, Germany, and the United States; and a portion of the Somali coast, obtained under private treaties with the natives in 1885, which in 1889 became part of an Italian protectorate, as the German Government declined to take over any rights of sovereignty in that part of Africa.

The colonial territories acquired by Germany were of two classes: those still unclaimed by any civilised powers and those already claimed or owned by such nations. In the case of the former, the title to hold and possess

was derived from the right of occupation following upon treaties with the local native chiefs. In the case of the latter, the countries were taken over from civilised States under treaties which ceded their already acquired rights of sovereignty. In the first category come the four African protectorates, South-west Africa, Togoland, the Camaroons, the greater part of East Africa, Kaiser Wilhelms Land, the Bismarck Archipelago, and the Marshall Islands. In the second category fall the coast portion of East Africa, the Caroline, Marianne, and the Pelew Islands, the islands of Upolu and Savai in the Samoan group, and Kiaochow. With the creation of a German colonial realm there were bound to arise many difficulties with foreign powers, as also with their colonial possessions in Africa and the Western Pacific, especially as to frontiers and spheres of interest. This innovation in the policy of a new Empire could not but provoke a certain amount of ill-feeling among the older European powers who had long-established and extensive colonial interests in every part of the world. But all matters arising out of the grafting of the new colonial dominions on

to the already powerful German Empire were satisfactorily arranged by a series of Treaties and Agreements during the years 1884 to 1900, which secured their frontiers at home and their recognition by the world at large. Most of these were with Great Britain, which will be mentioned later on; but there were others with Portugal, France, Spain, and the United States. The General Acts of the Berlin Conferences of 1886 and 1889, dealing with the Congo and Samoa respectively, were also important documents in determining the international situation of the German possessions.

Bismarck had stated, in the early days of the colonial movement, that colonising efforts would be protected whenever they gave promise of success; but that the Government could not do more than this, nor undertake the responsibilities of providing the new possessions with Government officials and military protection so long as the necessity for foreign colonisation was not recognised by the whole nation and was not properly supported by mercantile enterprise and capital. He stated that the English system, on the lines adopted in the case of the old East India Company,

would be followed as far as possible, so as to leave to the new colonial possessions the task of governing themselves, while enjoying, internationally, the protection of the Imperial Government against aggression from neighbouring countries or from European powers. Circumstances had, however, compelled him to somewhat modify his views before his resignation in 1890, by which date most of the existing protectorates were administered by the Imperial Government. But, nevertheless, during his term of office and in the following four years under his successor, General von Caprivi, colonial matters did not assume quite the importance that they eventually did under the third Imperial Chancellor, Prince Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst. It appears that there was even an idea in Government circles, when General von Caprivi was in power, of giving up South-West Africa on the ground of its slow and unsatisfactory development. To remedy this evil, and to attract foreign capital, English or partly English companies were granted important concessions there ; but this manner of fostering progress in German protectorates has, however, been lately dis-

countenanced by the Government. Under Prince Hohenlohe's rule great efforts were made to improve the condition of the colonial possessions and to make them self-supporting, an object that has so far by no means been realised ; and under the present Chancellor, Count von Bülow who came into office in 1900, colonial development receives every encouragement, and a determined attempt is being made to induce capitalists in the Empire to invest more largely in colonial enterprises. But the expectations of the Government have been rather disappointed in this respect. Even with the present system of organised emigration, the protectorates have so far failed to obtain any considerable number of German inhabitants ; though it may be said that the acquisition and cultivation of lands is fairly satisfactory and on the increase. Some political parties, nevertheless, still vehemently assert that the great cost of the colonial possessions to the Empire does not in any way correspond to their value as a colonial kingdom. They maintain that there is enough to do in effectively consolidating the new Empire, and in organising a sufficient defence for it, without

spending large sums on an adventurous and unremunerative colonial policy for possible future advantages. They go so far as to claim that far more can be done for the commonweal of the German lower classes by affording them assistance in purchasing small lots of land at home, which would not involve any considerable sacrifice to the nation nor the risk of complications abroad.

Having now traced historically the acquisition of the German colonial possessions under the Empire from its initiation in 1884, their present economic position in the world must be considered. Colonies are often described as being dependencies beyond the seas. The recently acquired territories of the German Empire in Africa, in the South Pacific Ocean, and in China certainly fall within the terms of that somewhat loose definition ; and they might, consequently, be called colonies. But, especially to an English mind, that name would inevitably confer upon them a status and dignity that they do not yet possess. It would be misleading, inasmuch as none of them have yet emerged from an embryo state. They are, at present, merely countries protected by the

Imperial Government, and are known officially only as protectorates (*Schutzgebiete*), not as colonies. It is, therefore, preferable to call them by that name or to designate them as colonial possessions, which will lead to no misconception as to their real character. They may be said to correspond to some extent to British Crown Colonies in so far that they are directly controlled by the Home Government. But in no German Colonial Possessions are there any local legislatures, or even Crown Councils of any kind, with the right of voting as to questions of government; so that the Governors, appointed by the Emperor, are all-powerful. In Kiaochow and Samoa, however, there is a kind of purely advisory Body. They are direct dependencies of the Imperial Crown of Germany. No single German State in modern times, before the Empire was founded, ever claimed protective rights over any colonial territories owned by its subjects. But it must not be forgotten that during the seventeenth century the 'Grosser Kurfürst' of the then flourishing State of Brandenburg did possess some colonial territories on the West Coast of Africa, which, however, were soon abandoned

by his successors. Internationally, these protectorates belong to the German Empire, but they do not constitute an integral part thereof, for they have not been added by any special law to the list of countries named in Article 1 of the Constitution of 1871 as forming the German Empire. It is only exceptionally and under special imperial laws and decrees (ordinances) that they can be treated as constituent parts of the Empire; for Article 2 of the Constitution does not permit imperial legislation as a matter of course to override local laws, except within the strict limits of the territories of the new Empire as it stood in 1871, when no German colonial possessions existed. Neither do the protectorates, from a commercial point of view, belong to the customs territories of the German Empire under the 'Zollverein'; and they are, therefore, not subject to the general imperial laws regulating customs and taxes, but only to separate ones of their own. Indeed, up to the year 1893 they were treated entirely as foreign countries in tariff matters, and were charged the rates of the higher or 'autonomous' import duties. It is only since that year that imports

from German colonial possessions have enjoyed the privileges of the lower or conventional tariff, on the same footing as those foreign nations which have either a special tariff treaty or the right to most-favoured-nation treatment. There has been an agitation at times for the accordance of special privileges, below those lower duties, for imports of German colonial produce into the Empire. But, so far, preferential trade with the mother country has not been conceded to them, nor is it likely to be granted in the near future.

The constitutional position of these protectorates is a most peculiar one in many respects, for they have a curious dual character in the eye of the law. In some instances they are treated as on a par with the single Federated States of the Empire, and in others they are placed almost on the footing of foreign countries. For example, in the former capacity they have now, by special application of certain imperial legislative measures with some necessary modifications, the same civil, criminal, marriage, and naturalisation laws as in the German Empire; and, in the latter capacity, they do not form part of the German Customs

Union, they have no rights of electing deputies to the 'Reichstag,' they have no representatives in the 'Bundesrath,' and financially they have, under a special law of 1892, a status of their own, but their budget estimates have to be sanctioned by the 'Reichstag.' All German subjects residing in them are exempt from 'double taxation'—that is, of being simultaneously liable in a State of the Empire and in a protectorate to direct taxation; in this respect the colonial possessions are on an equality with the Federated States. But in another respect they are not; for from the local colonial tribunals no appeal lies to the Supreme Court of the Empire at Leipzig. And it may be mentioned that subjects of the German Empire, resident in the protectorates, can only exercise their right of voting for the election of deputies to the 'Reichstag' if they happen to be within the limits of the Empire at election time. But, on the other hand, a colonial resident in a protectorate is eligible for election to the 'Reichstag' if he has been a German subject during the period of one year. Such are some of the anomalies of their somewhat irregular position, which has been

compared to that in which the French provinces of Alsace-Lorraine were for a short time (May to June 1871) when taken over by Germany and before they were actually incorporated by law into the German Empire. They may some day be raised to the higher rank of a '*Reichsland*,' such as Alsace-Lorraine now is, which means they would then form constituent parts of the Empire, and be included within the '*Zollverein*,' but without certain elective and other rights, enjoyed by all Federated States.

The law of 1886, dealing fully for the first time with the position of the new protectorates, placed their government under the direct control of the German Emperor, who exercises his protective rights over them in the name of the Empire. It follows from this provision, and from the fact of their not forming integral parts of the Empire, that the Emperor could, apparently, give them up, if he wished, without the sanction either of the '*Bundesrath*' or of the '*Reichstag*.' And, as the Articles of the 1871 Constitution of the Empire do not apply to them, he is not bound down, as is the case with the Empire, to certain limitations therein

imposed upon him, such as that of requiring the consent of the 'Bundesrath' to declare war except when purely for defensive purposes. His action in regard to them is only limited as regards their finances, which, however, is an important limitation, and as to certain imperial laws applicable to them. He has, in fact, a free hand otherwise in these protectorates, and is all-powerful in matters concerning them. He represents them internationally, including those duties incumbent upon some of them under the Congo and Anti-slavery Acts. He protects them from attack or aggression; and he exercises all judicial and other high functions in them. A special law of 1887 regulated the question of real property; and another of 1888 empowered colonial officials to take over certain duties usually exercised abroad by consular officers, settled the legal position of colonial companies, and defined the powers of the Chancellor as to issuing decrees. A further law of 1900 provided for the adoption, with some alterations, in the protectorates of the new Civil and Commercial Codes which came into force in the German Empire on January 1, 1900. The absolute freedom of religious

opinion and complete liberty to erect churches of any creed or to establish missions are secured in them. The necessary colonial legislation is always effected partly by special laws, such as those mentioned above, and partly by decrees (ordinances) of all kinds emanating from the Emperor, the Chancellor, and the local Governors. The Imperial Chancellor is responsible for the actual administration; and he directs it from the Imperial Foreign Office at Berlin, in which, since 1890, there has existed a special Colonial Department for this purpose. It is greatly assisted in its work by an unpaid council of about forty persons having special knowledge of colonial affairs, who are appointed for a term of three years. Kiaochow is the only possession not under the Foreign Office. It is directly controlled by the Admiralty, and its budgets appear under the Naval Estimates. The local government in each protectorate is in the hands of a Governor, who is assisted by other necessary local officials, few in number. In the Marshall Islands, however, an Imperial Official, assisted by a secretary, exercises administrative power, the salaries of both being provided by the private

Jaluit Company, the members of which otherwise have complete control over these islands under a Charter.

However desirable it is to have specially trained men for this new colonial work, it has been found to be impossible to organise a regular service in which a man remains all his life, as is the case in the British colonial service, because of the unhealthy nature of the climates in which his employment invariably lies. Continual changes of officials, therefore, take place. Efforts are, however, being made to supply some of these men in Germany with the special kinds of knowledge required for colonial work. Certain small grants are now made in the budgets for this purpose, which enable designated colonial officials to follow certain courses of study before taking up their posts. And provision has this year been made for extra professors to teach such men English and French at the Oriental School at Berlin, where, in the special section for languages, they already learn *Suaheli*, the dialect of East Africa, and Chinese.

A small number of colonial troops, about 7,630 altogether, are provided for defensive

and offensive purposes and for the prevention of the slave traffic. Of these some 3,400 are Europeans, recruited voluntarily in Germany usually for about three years' service. They are under the direct orders of the Emperor; and the Imperial Chancellor is their Commander-in-Chief. There is a head quarter office in Berlin, with a small staff. The Governor, as chief of the local colonial troops, employs them as he thinks best.

In connection with the question of developing the newly acquired protectorates, there has been much discussion as to the advisability of establishing penal settlements in them, especially in the case of South-West Africa, where a system of farming by convicts has been much advocated. But the Government so far have declined to adopt such a course; and they have again recently stated that the Governors of the African possessions are decidedly adverse to the proposal. In the Western Pacific, of course, there is no question of such penal settlements in German possessions because of a special Article in the 1886 Agreement between the British and German Governments dealing with spheres of influence

there, which specifically forbids their establishment.

Judged by the narrow test of the actual value of their commerce with the mother country—which is often considered to be a fair criterion of the value of a country's colonies—all the German colonial possessions are anything but valuable. According to published statistics, their whole trade with the world in 1899 only amounted to 2,627,395*l.*, of which 1,892,152*l.* represented imports and 735,243*l.* exports; and of that total almost the whole fell to the four African protectorates, the remaining Western Pacific and Asiatic (China) possessions only figuring for 185,075*l.* The actual commerce with Germany is obtainable only for the East African and South-West African protectorates: and that merely comes to 542,691*l.* out of their joint total trade of 1,255,017*l.* But, in considering their value to the Empire, one must take a broad view of the whole question, into which, in the interests of the future welfare of the nation, there must necessarily enter many important considerations of State policy. The net expense of maintaining the existing colonial

acquisitions in 1899 was 765,320*l.*, for that was the amount of the grants-in-aid actually paid out by the Imperial Exchequer over and above the proceeds of the revenues locally collected in the protectorates themselves. The expenses in 1900 had risen to 871,642*l.*, and were estimated at 1,128,430*l.* for 1901. These figures do not, however, include the cost of Kiaochow, for which the first expenditure appeared in 1898. In 1900 and 1901 respectively the amounts were 489,000*l.* and 537,500*l.* And in those two years there must also be added the grants-in-aid for the Samoan Islands—namely, 2,600*l.* and 7,300*l.* The total present yield of taxation and customs duties in all these colonial possessions does not exceed 364,200*l.* With the above additions, the total cost to the German Empire of its present colonial kingdom in 1901 is 1,673,230*l.*

CHAPTER VIII

COLONIAL POSSESSIONS

THE colonies of most nations derive their chief prosperity from their agricultural resources. There is not, however, much opportunity in the German possessions for European agriculture of any kind, as they are almost all sub-tropical in character—an unfortunate circumstance that militates against the settlement of large numbers of Germans, and does not enable the production in any quantity of certain desirable raw materials for the markets of the Empire. The high lands in the East and South-West African protectorates are perhaps the most suited to future farming of a European nature, and it is in those regions that some farmers are already established. As a whole, the protectorates are essentially plantation colonies, where tropical, or semi-tropical, products only can be grown, the two exceptions

being Kiaochow, which lies in high latitudes, and South-West Africa, which is partly outside the tropics. The ordinary German emigrant, therefore, usually seeks milder climates and better-known countries. It is hoped, however, that Dr. Koch's researches into the causes of malaria and other fevers may have the result of making a residence in these tropical regions less dangerous than before. Much has been done in late years to promote trade with these places, as it has been deemed advisable, with the prospect of a narrowing-down of the present markets for German exports, to open out new African inland districts as far as possible, and not to limit the possibilities of commerce there merely to a coasting trade. There is a Colonial Trade Society which does much to foster commercial relations with the protectorates. It organises many exhibitions of their produce in all parts of Germany, and gives interested persons information as to the kind of goods that are likely to obtain a ready sale in the colonial territories. The careful development of their products is especially looked after, and such articles are chemically and technically

examined so as to ascertain their exact worth for particular uses or markets abroad. Means are provided by the Government for acquiring a better scientific knowledge of the African and other territories in the form of the 'African Fund,' which is a regular grant of 10,000*l.* a year.

The German possessions fall naturally into three distinct divisions—the African, the Western Pacific, and the Asiatic (China) protectorates, which will now be described in that order. Their area together is about 1,027,000 square miles, or nearly five times as large as the German Empire. This places them, when compared as to extent of territory, before the present colonial possessions both of Holland and Portugal. In comparison with British territories they cover an area, more or less, five times as large as Cape Colony. Of that total nine-tenths fall to the African continent. The relative sizes of the individual protectorates are best shown by the following particulars. Compared with the German Empire, East Africa is almost twice as large; South-West Africa is half as large again; and the Camaroons are the same size. Before

describing the African colonial possessions separately, the subject of their steamer communications with Europe is best dealt with as a whole. For ten years past they have held an important place in the development of German commerce, not only with these protectorates, but also with British and other colonies situated in Africa. With a view to aiding colonial enterprise the Imperial Government granted, in 1890, a yearly mail subsidy of 45,000*l.* for an East African line to run from Hamburg, *viâ* Suez and Zanzibar, to Mozambique and Delagoa Bay. The port of Dar-es-Salaam was soon afterwards made a port of call. In 1900 that subsidy was increased to 67,500*l.* in return for an extended service of fast boats by the same company right round the African continent, from the east and west alternately, calling at Durban and Cape Town. By means of a system of combined exceptional rates by the State Railways of Germany from inland towns to Hamburg and from there by the ships of this subsidised line to African ports, a valuable outlet for exports has been secured which is likely to considerably expand during the

next few years. It may here be mentioned that many questions affecting German and British trade and shipping on the African continent have been satisfactorily regulated by the 1890 and other late Agreements between the two Governments.

The most important protectorate is German East Africa, which has an estimated native population of 6,000,000. There are, in addition, some 1,100 white residents, of whom about 400 are civil and military persons. The local troops, including constabulary, are over 2,000 strong. Its capital is Dar-es-Salaam, already an important port of call, which possesses a floating dock capable of accommodating large vessels of all kinds. Agriculture so far exists on a small scale, for European cereals are not very successful. But it is claimed that for oil-bearing plants, such as sesame and earth-nuts, the facilities are equal to those of Mozambique or Senegal. Cattle-breeding and coffee-growing are on the increase. Many tropical products are exported, and it is hoped in the future to grow cotton plants, which might gradually make Germany more independent of other countries for

her supply of raw cotton ; but the experiments made have, so far, not been altogether satisfactory. With a view to facilitate the cultivation of that product and of rice, the immigration of Indian cultivators is now being encouraged by donations of plots of land and by grants of small sums up to 25*l.* to cover the cost of their voyage from India and the purchase of necessary agricultural implements. Experimental plantations of agave fibre, indigo, and tea are reported to have been successful ; and much is hoped for from the fact that both coal and gold are to be found in the interior. In 1899 the exports were valued at 196,857*l.*, of which 46,172*l.* represented goods sent to Germany ; and imports figured for 541,129*l.*, of which 100,942*l.* came from Germany. The cost of the administration in the same year was 427,275*l.* (491,975*l.* in 1900 estimates), of which only 125,500*l.* came out of local revenues, the remainder, 301,755*l.* (341,545*l.* in 1900), being the amount of the grant-in-aid from the Imperial Government.

This protectorate has undoubtedly a favourable situation in many respects, as its frontiers touch all the three great African lakes ; but

it has, unfortunately, no waterway from them to the coast through its territories. On the north it touches the British Uganda Protectorate and British East Africa. On the south it borders on British Central Africa and the Portuguese colonial possessions. To the west it faces the Congo Free State, the frontier line being almost entirely Lake Tanganyika. The economic importance of this protectorate, therefore, lies partly in its future possibilities as a transmitter of trade from these inland lake districts to the coast ; and it is in this connection that the so-called Central Railway has been projected to run from Dar-es-Salaam to some point on Lake Tanganyika, a distance of perhaps 390 miles, so as to tap Central Africa and to open up the reported rich inland portions of this immense protectorate. Such a railway might secure a valuable part of the free trade accorded equally to all nations in the Congo State, and would afford it a direct outlet from Lake Tanganyika eastwards, and be the shortest route to the sea ; whereas the distance from the lakes westward to Stanley Pool would be perhaps 3,500 miles and thence another 1,250 to the coast. But there is

already a rival line to divert Central African trade to the north in the Uganda Railway, in British East Africa, from Port Florence on Lake Victoria Nyanza to Mombassa on the coast, which is now completed. And there are the projected English railways in British Central Africa and the contemplated Portuguese line from Lake Nyassa to Quilimane, which are also likely to attract inland commerce to the south of this German territory. These are factors that will adversely affect the prospects of this proposed Central Railway, estimated to cost many millions sterling for its whole length. Such considerations have already determined the Germans to at once build from Dar-es-Salaam to Mrogoro the first section, which it is hoped eventually to connect with the railway that is to run from the Cape to Cairo, which would materially benefit the protectorate. A German East Africa Railway Company, consisting of leading bankers, has now been formed to supply 1,200,000*l.* of capital for this purpose. The line is to be a narrow-gauge (width, 0·75 metres) 149 miles long, and is to be completed in five years' time. Hitherto, as has been

stated in the 'Reichstag,' German capitalists have shown considerable reluctance in investing in any colonial railway schemes. In the draft Government Bill for taking over the stipulated guarantee of three per cent., it is stated that the Federated Governments consider it imperative that its construction should be begun immediately in the interests of a prosperous development of the protectorate. The whole question, however, of this undertaking was still in 1901 before the 'Reichstag' for settlement. The only existing railway is the short line from Tanga, on the coast in the north, to Muhesa known as the Usambara line, which runs through a coffee district and which was bought by the German Government from the private East Africa Company in 1899. Funds are to be granted for its extension to Korogwe, fifty-six miles from the coast.

The German East African Protectorate consists partly of territories formerly claimed by the Sultan of Zanzibar in the Hinterland and partly of additions gradually made in later years. The former were acquired by the Germans under treaties with the natives, and were placed under German protection in 1885 ;

but a naval demonstration was necessary to force the Sultan to recognise their protection by Germany. By an Agreement with Great Britain in 1886 this arrangement was recognised, the Sultan still retaining, as before, a narrow coast line ten miles wide. Germany at the same time agreed with France and England to recognise the independence of the Sultanate of Zanzibar, and the Treaty of Lisbon shortly afterwards settled the frontier of the new protectorate touching the Portuguese territories in the south. The right of collection of customs' duties on the coast strip, belonging to the Sultan, was obtained in 1888 under a lease, a step that resulted in a serious rebellion which, with British assistance, was put down by German ships and by troops locally collected. By the Agreement with England in 1890, under which Heligoland was ceded to the German Empire, the above-mentioned sea-coast was handed over by the Sultan of Zanzibar to the Germans in return for a payment of 200,000*l.* ; the Sultanate of Witu, formerly in the possession of Germany, was transferred to England ; and the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba were placed under British protection.

At the same time the frontiers of all the German protectorates in Africa were more closely defined; and in 1893 and 1901 respectively the spheres of interest of Germany and England in the north of the German East African Protectorate and between the Lakes Tanganyika and Nyassa were more accurately laid down.

German South-West Africa enjoys a better climate, lying as it does much further from the Equator between the Portuguese possession of Angola in the north and the Orange River in the south. Its northern half only falls within the tropics; and it is for this reason that it is hoped sheep breeding may develop on a large scale in the future, so as to furnish wool for the German textile industries, as it is considered that this could be done with success on the higher inland plateaus, especially in Namaland in the south. The number of native inhabitants is roughly estimated at 200,000, and there are also about 2,900 Europeans, of whom a considerable number are officials and soldiers. The chief source of riches there, at present, is cattle; and the sale of lands and the mineral resources will be considerable

assets in the future. The Government do much to help the farmers to improve the local breeds and to combat the cattle plague from which the country, in common with the British colonies in South Africa, has recently suffered greatly, thus retarding the general progress. But these losses have been considerably lessened by means of Dr. Koch's system of inoculation against 'Rinderpest.' There is one small railway (gauge, 0·60 metres) starting from Swakopmund, where a harbour is being constructed, to the north of Walfisch Bay, which already runs about half way to Windhoek, the residence of the Government officials, the total distance being about 235 miles. This line was undertaken by the Imperial Government when the great prevalence of the cattle plague made it probable that means of transport would fail for want of draught oxen. Its estimated cost is nearly 700,000*l.* The chief exports are hides, horns, ostrich feathers, cattle, and guano. The total exportation was valued at 69,974*l.* in 1899, of which exports to the value of 12,077*l.* went to Germany; and the total imports figured at 447,057*l.*, of which 383,502*l.* came from Germany. The cost of

administration was 373,950*l.* (408,715*l.* in 1900 estimates), of which 345,450*l.* (359,065*l.* in 1900) had to be met by the Imperial Government, the local revenues only amounting to 28,500*l.* Telegraph communication with Germany was secured in 1899, and the postal and trade communications are effected by non-subsidised steamers of the Hamburg Woermann line, which run once a month. There is a local steamer which connects the protectorate with Cape Town.

German South-West Africa consists of territories formerly known as Damara and Great Nama lands. In 1878 Great Britain annexed Walfisch Bay and some 200 square miles of adjoining territory, which now forms a detached part of Cape Colony. In 1883 the Germans obtained a footing on the coast further to the south, by the private purchase of the harbour of Angra Pequena by a German subject, to which he soon afterwards added an enormous territory reaching south as far as the Orange River. It was these privately obtained territories that the Imperial Government placed under their protection in 1884. In the following year all the country lying to

the north as far as the Cunene River, the frontier of the Portuguese possessions, was similarly taken over. Other large tracts of land were subsequently added by various treaties with the native chiefs; and the small Boer Republic of Upingtonia, which had existed since 1885 in Ovamboland, placed itself in the following year under German protection. In 1890 Article III. of the Anglo-German agreement laid down part of the frontiers of this new protectorate, and the Treaty of Lisbon of 1886 had settled the frontier questions between Portugal and Germany.

In the Camaroons the German Empire possesses her third largest African protectorate, with a population of perhaps $3\frac{1}{2}$ million natives and some 500 Europeans. It lies just north of the Equator on the Bight of Biafra, in the Gulf of Guinea on the West African coast. The total value of exports in 1889 was 257,847*l.* and that of imports stood at 636,336*l.* The cost of administration figured at 85,670*l.* (118,985*l.* in the 1900 estimates), of which the Government grant-in-aid amounted to 49,170*l.* (59,885*l.* in 1900). German firms from the Hanse Towns had for more than thirty years

done a large trade in this region, and had placed settlements out there which, already twenty-five years ago, wished to be under German protection, but this was not accorded them till the year 1884. The condition of the protectorate is satisfactory. An electrical railway between Victoria and Edea is contemplated in order to further develop the local plantations. The recognition of this new protectorate and its frontiers, as well as the regulation of German and British spheres of influence, were settled in 1885 and 1886. The frontier questions to the south with the French Government were arranged in the former year. In 1890 and 1893 further Agreements with Great Britain settled questions concerning trade matters in the interior and certain frontier delimitations. By a Treaty with France in 1894 a territorial footing was secured on Lake Chad.

Togoland is the fourth and smallest of the protectorates on the African continent; and it was distinguished, up to lately, by the fact that it was the only colonial possession which was able to exist on its local revenues without a subsidy from the German Empire. Owing

principally to the increase of administrative expenses, and of a wise extension of traffic facilities in the last few years, the Imperial Exchequer has, however, had to provide grants-in-aid. The expenses of the administration in 1899 were 40,205*l.* (37,500*l.* in the 1900 estimates), of which 12,705*l.* (13,500*l.* in 1900) consisted of the imperial subsidy. There is a narrow sea-coast with several small ports which have a certain amount of trade in the usual African products. Exports in the same year were valued at 129,135*l.* and imports at 163,985*l.* It is proposed to build a light railway from Lome to Little Popo when the landing stage at the former port is completed. The preparatory works are already in progress ; the probable cost will be 36,000*l.*

This territory was placed under imperial protection in 1884 in the interests of the German settlers and of commerce generally. The greater part of the frontiers were gradually defined by a series of Agreements with England and France. But the actual division between Great Britain and the German Empire of the existing neutral territory round Salaga, established in 1888, has not yet been effected ; nor

has a complete delimitation of the frontier near the coast been yet attained. In 1897 a final Agreement was effected between the German and French Governments as to the delimitation of their respective possessions in the neighbourhood of Togoland, Dahomey, and the Soudan.

The imperial possessions in the Western Pacific will now be described. For many years German trade had been active in the South Seas ; numbers of merchants and settlers had obtained large commercial interests in different islands. The territories recently acquired there by Germany in the western part are best treated together as a whole. Like most of the African protectorates, they are purely tropical. In the course of the years 1884 to 1899 the German possessions in those seas were rounded off by gradual additions into a fairly compact mass of islands consisting of Kaiser Wilhelms Land, the Bismarck Archipelago, the Admiralty Islands, and some of the Solomon group lying to the south of the Equator, and of the Marshall, Caroline, Marianne, and Pelew groups of islands, all situated to the north of the Equator. The

lately acquired islands of Savai and Upolu in the Samoan, or Navigators', Islands lie, however, remote from the rest, some 700 miles to the north-west of the British colony of Fiji. The colonial schemes of the Imperial Government were not viewed with much favour in England, and the Australian colonies strongly objected to the establishment of German protectorates in their vicinity. The German Government, however, determined in 1884 to place under their protection those districts where their subjects had already founded settlements. They gave as a reason that they could not allow formerly independent territories, where their trade had hitherto freely developed and in which openings existed for their people as colonists, to fall under the sway either of the British Government or of the Australian colonies. The question first came to the front in the case of the conflicting claims of Great Britain and Germany with regard to the eastern part of the island of New Guinea, the western portion of which already belonged to the Dutch. But they resulted in an amicable settlement in 1885, by which the latter power definitely took possession of the north coast

and the former retained the southern part of the island. The New Guinea Company then obtained a charter from the German Empire, by which they acquired the suzerainty over the new territory, as also over the neighbouring Admiralty, New Britain, and New Ireland islands. The settlements on New Guinea became Kaiser Wilhelms Land, and the last-named two islands were called the Bismarck Archipelago. But it was soon found that there were practical difficulties in the way of the New Guinea Company exercising some of the administrative rights conferred upon them; and the Imperial Government consequently took over certain branches of the administration in 1889, such as the collection of taxes and duties, the cost of the necessary officials for this purpose being paid for out of the funds of the company. It was not until 1899 that the Empire finally took over the whole government, and the formerly independent and powerful company was changed into an ordinary German Colonial Company. An Imperial High Commissioner was then appointed for the first time.

The spheres of interest of European

powers in the Western Pacific have been regulated by several international Agreements directly affecting Germany. At the close of the year 1885 the relations of the German Empire and France in those regions were settled by an Agreement under which Germany undertook not to take any steps tending to prevent the eventual occupation by the French Government of the Windward Islands, near Tahiti, or of the New Hebrides, near New Caledonia, and France guaranteed that in such an eventuality the acquired rights of German subjects in those islands should be secured to them.

In the same year the Marshall Islands, consisting of the Ratak and Ralick chains of islets and of the Brown and Providence Islands (situated some 2,000 miles to the north-east of the island of New Guinea), came under German protection. As early as 1878 a coaling station had been secured in that Archipelago by Germany at Jaluit harbour under a Treaty of Friendship with the local chief. In 1887, two years after these islands had been taken over, the German firms formerly trading there formed themselves into the Jaluit Company

to work the islands, but it was then arranged that imperial officials should carry on their administration, the cost thereof being entirely defrayed by that company. In consequence of this arrangement the Jaluit Company has always had a peculiarly influential position with the German Government, which admits of its having an unusual amount of control in all matters concerning these islands.

Several attempts of the German Government to obtain possession of the Caroline, Marianne, and Pelew Islands (lying about 1,500 miles to the north of New Guinea) failed owing to the opposition of the Spanish Government and to the prior proprietary claims put forward by them. The motive of these attempts was to secure German interests in those islands, which consisted of certain plantations and of a considerable amount of local trade. The Spanish Government, when informed of the intention of the German Government to take the islands under their protection, stated that they had always belonged to Spain, and were not, as alleged, devoid of ownership. The Holy See, to whom the matter was referred by mutual

consent for arbitration, decided that Spain had a prior right of possession. It was then that the Germans, disappointed in that direction, decided to hoist their flag on the Marshall Islands instead. But the Caroline, Marianne, and Pelew Islands (except Guam, which the United States obtained) were eventually acquired in 1899 for a sum of 837,500*l.* under a treaty with the Spanish Government after the conclusion of the war with the United States. They were then placed administratively under the orders of the Governor of Kaiser Wilhelms Land. After the conclusion of the 1886 Agreement between the German and British Governments, laying down their respective spheres of influence in the Western Pacific, three of the Solomon Islands—Bougainville, Choiseul, and Isabel—lying to the east of New Guinea, were placed under German protection and handed over to the New Guinea Company. In the limits of the Western Pacific, which were then defined as that portion lying between 15° North and 30° South Latitude, and between 165° Longitude West and 130° Longitude East of Greenwich, there was to be reciprocal freedom of trade, of

traffic, and of engaging in business, industrial or agricultural undertakings, together with equal rights as to the acquisition of property. All the colonies, however, which possessed fully constituted Governments and legislatures of their own were exempted from the operation of this Agreement. The terms of this provision, therefore, excluded the British colonies of Victoria, New South Wales, South Australia, Queensland, Tasmania, and New Zealand. Both Governments further agreed not to establish penal settlements nor to transport convicts to any part of this Western Pacific. By the later Anglo-German Agreement of 1899 the islands of Choiseul and Isabel, in the Solomon group, were handed over to Great Britain, as well as all other islands to the east and south-east of the island of Bougainville, including the Howe group. Germany still retained Bougainville and the island of Buka. It was under this same Agreement that the two islands of Upolu and Savai, of the Samoan group, were handed over to Germany, both Great Britain and the United States having expressly renounced all rights whatever over them in consequence of a mutual arrange-

ment between those three powers to divide the various islands, instead of their continuing to be a neutral territory under a native chief but subject to their tripartite government, as decided upon in 1889 under the General Act of the Samoan Conference. This step was decided upon after serious fighting in the islands in 1898, as it was found to be impossible to otherwise remedy the troubles and difficulties under which these islands were suffering as long as they remained under the joint administration of the three Governments. At the same time Great Britain obtained all rights over the Tonga Islands, including the Vavan and Savage Islands, and the United States acquired similar rights over Tutuila and certain other small islands. Minor points included in the arrangement were that the 1886 Declaration regarding Anglo-German freedom of commerce in the Western Pacific should also apply to the islands then dealt with, and that Germany renounced her rights to extraterritoriality in Zanzibar, with the proviso that they should not be given up until those enjoyed there by other foreign nations were also abolished.

The total cost to the German Empire of

these possessions in the Western Pacific was 59,850*l.* in 1899 (64,675*l.* in 1900), out of which the grants-in-aid came to 56,100*l.* (60,925*l.* in 1900). Their products are not of great value at present, consisting chiefly of copra (a production of the coconut palm, largely employed in the manufacture of soap and candles), trepang, other ordinary tropical commodities, and some coffee, tobacco, and cotton.

Lastly comes German colonisation in China. Even as late as 1895 the Germans had no rights to any territorial settlements there similar to those of Great Britain, France, and the United States. It was only then that negotiations took place with the Chinese Government which resulted in the placing of German settlements both at Hankow and Tientsin. Their establishment was considered to be necessary in the interests of trade in order that German merchants should be on an equality with other foreign powers, who already possessed, under treaty, such separate colonies of subjects of their own, which, though outside Chinese jurisdiction, still formed part of the Chinese Empire. The next important step was the acquisition of

Kiaochow in 1897, when a German squadron landed troops there and took possession in consequence of the murder of German missionaries in the province of Shantung. Early in 1898 a treaty was concluded by which China granted 'temporarily' to Germany, not only the harbour of Kiaochow, but also 200 square miles of adjacent land on a lease of ninety-nine years. Various islands lying at the entrance to the bay were also included, and the whole was declared a protectorate. The Chinese abandoned to the Imperial Government absolutely all rights of sovereignty in those places within the populous province of Shantung. A semi-circular sphere of influence, with a radius of thirty-one miles round that harbour, was created by mutual agreement, in which Germany possessed certain railway and mining rights. This policy was dictated by the advisability of securing a territorial footing in Eastern Asia, so as to obtain access to inland Chinese markets for German trade, which the Government considered to be essential for future requirements. It was also deemed advisable in the interests of the fleet to establish a naval base in Chinese waters, so as to be

independent of the coaling stations of foreign powers, on which German ships had formerly been compelled to rely entirely.

Kiaochow was selected as being the most suitable for all purposes, for it had a large and safe harbour remote from Russian, British, and French spheres of influence. Moreover, the climate was good; and there was this great advantage over most other available Chinese ports, that coalfields existed in the neighbourhood, which could be connected by rail with little difficulty and at no great cost. It is hoped, when the mines are working and have the benefit of this railway transport to the coast, that foreign vessels will often coal there, so that Kiaochow may become a much frequented place for ships of all nations. With a view to such future possibilities, a large harbour is being made with long breakwaters at Tsingtau, which in 1898 was declared a free port open to the commerce of all countries equally. It is the only one existing in all the German colonial possessions. The estimates for 1901 provide for the construction of a large floating dock there. The first section of the Shantung railway, which is to penetrate far into Chinese

territory in the course of time, was opened in April 1901. The company to build this line was formed in 1899 with a capital of 2,700,000*l.*, and it undertakes to build the entire railway from Tsingtau to Tsinanfu, together with a branch to Poschan, in the course of five years. The length will be 280 miles of single rail and the gauge 1·435 metres. The Imperial Government have the right to purchase the same after the expiration of sixty years. The administration of this protectorate is directly under the Admiralty, and the naval authority is also supreme on shore. It is garrisoned by marines, assisted by a locally raised force of Chinese. The Governor is always a naval officer. The imperial expenditure on Kiaochow has been great—namely, 25,000*l.* in 1898, 425,000*l.* in 1899, 499,662*l.* in 1900, and is to be 552,500*l.* in 1901. The cost of the joint civil, naval, and military administration is 219,169*l.* at present. The non-recurring expenditure was 328,750*l.* in 1901, and 296,250*l.* in 1900. The sums devoted to harbour and other public works have been large, and amounted to some 415,500*l.* for 1900 and 1901. The local revenues were only expected to produce some 15,000*l.* in the latter year.

CHAPTER IX

NATIONAL EDUCATION

THE material progress of every nation must always be powerfully influenced by the condition of its national education ; for each man becomes more or less fitted for the part he has to play, in contributing to the growth of the national wealth of his country, according to the character and quality of his educational training. The higher the average intellectual capacities and executive abilities are, the better will be the collective chances of success vested in the nation. Both are necessary under modern conditions ; mere knowledge without practical skill is not sufficient for the now exacting requirements of the personal struggle for life at home, nor for the international contest for existence in the world. The growth and tendencies of the educational system in Germany in the past appear to have

been peculiarly beneficial to the whole people by enabling them to obtain the right sort of knowledge for a successful economic development. This has been especially the case in late years, during which certain important modifications have been introduced in order to meet the practical needs of the Empire.

The general principles that have been followed are to provide a good primary and secondary education, carefully differentiated in the case of the latter so as to suit the requirements of the various classes of the population, and in which quality rather than quantity has always been considered. The training of independent thought and action, leading to self-reliance, a qualification valuable to every man, has also received careful attention in the school system. A sound general knowledge, up to a certain age, is thought to be a far better preparation for every sphere of future life than a too early devotion to specialised courses of study for particular professions or occupations. As the present lines of education all over Germany are very similar in many respects, having been modelled mostly on the system obtaining in Prussia, it will perhaps

be sufficient for general purposes to treat only of the national education in that kingdom, which, from the various political circumstances described elsewhere in this volume, came also to take the lead in regard to public education as in so many other matters. Generally speaking, it may be said that throughout Germany the educational organisation, the courses of study, and the results of the examinations, including the privileges conferred by them, are much the same. The elementary and secondary schools, as well as the universities, closely resemble one another in all the Federated States ; but there is considerable variety with regard to their legal basis, the position of their school officials, the general system of administration, and the financial arrangements. The regulation of school matters was not one of the functions undertaken by the Empire in the 1871 Constitution ; but, as a result of certain arrangements providing for military service in the Empire, and in order to obtain uniformity in them, there has long existed an ‘ Imperial School Commission ’ for Secondary Education established for the special purpose of according to various

schools throughout the German dominions the usual privileges in the matter of the 'Leaving Certificates' necessary to obtain the right to one year's service in the army. In all other respects each Federated State regulates its own educational affairs.

Soon after the year 1806 and the collapse of the former German Empire before the French invasion under Napoleon, the statesmen of the then humbled Kingdom of Prussia determined to reorganise its educational basis, and to so rehabilitate the State and its political power which had fallen so low. The educational question, therefore, received the closest attention, and a system was organised tending to educate and elevate the people with a view, not only to obtaining a greater personal intellectual power, but also to giving the Prussian population an altogether more resolute national character. In the reorganisation of the higher education effected between 1808 and 1818 perhaps the most important step was the extension of State control, which had, however, already been long in existence. The facility with which this was effected, without any serious opposition, is only to be

accounted for by the fact of the recognition by the public of the urgent necessity of prompt national regeneration. In the 'Common Law Code' ('*Allgemeines Landrecht*') of 1794 it had been distinctly stated that the right of controlling and inspecting the universities, schools, and other educational establishments belonged to the Prussian Government, who, however, had already certain rights in such matters dating back to the beginning of that century. New schools could only be founded with their approval, and the teachers were already Government officials. The control of the State came to be exercised in 1808 by a special section of the Ministry of the Interior, which after 1817 became the Education Office. Thus for over a hundred years there has existed in the Kingdom of Prussia one supreme and central authority in educational matters, the advantages of which it is impossible to overestimate in considering national progress.

During the nineteenth century the effective control of the State has increased with every reform and reorganisation. It has also resulted in a continual rise of the educational standard

attainable in the schools. Throughout that period every change made was invariably brought about methodically, and only after being recommended by persons fully qualified to judge of the net results of the proposed alterations. Moreover, due weight has always been given to considerations of expediency and economy. The attention that was paid from the beginning to the quality of the public education and to the methods of teaching in Prussia has had a lasting and beneficial influence on the whole nation. In the first task of reorganisation of secondary and higher education the cleverest and most experienced men of the day took part. The main advantages secured to the people, under the reforms then effected, at the opening of the nineteenth century were twofold. They concerned both the teachers and their scholars. In the first place, teaching was made a recognised profession when a Government examination became a necessary precedent to public or private tuition of any kind. And, secondly, a uniform fixed programme of school work during stated periods was laid down. The Prussian Constitution of 1850 went further, and provided that in

all educational establishments, both public and private, the teachers must satisfy the Government officials of their scientific, technical, and moral fitness to teach. A few years later the Prussian Government energetically took up the question of 'modern' education in the '*Realschulen*,' which up to that time had had to contend with old prejudices, and to encounter many practical difficulties, which prevented them from being properly recognised as part of the national system at an earlier date. Their growth and influence have since then increased rapidly with the material progress of Germany, and they have gradually won their right to an equality with the classical schools in the matter of privileges. Their development has been the chief feature of the general educational advance made during the latter part of the nineteenth century. The importance of their standing is at once seen when it is pointed out that these are the schools frequented by most of the middle classes, or that portion of the population between the ages of nine and eighteen which in later life will form the bulk of the commercial and industrial communities, so vital

to the economic development. In 1882 the 'modern' schools were re-modelled; and all the subsequent changes in them since that date are embodied in the new educational programme for the higher schools which came into force in 1901.

The general educational results of Prussian secondary education are, undoubtedly, high average attainments in many subjects, accompanied by a habit of thought tending to a rapid assimilation and retention of all subjects of study—a most useful mental quality for each man's future advancement. They have greatly promoted the prosperity of the Empire, particularly in late years, especially by the remarkable quality of the higher branches of the technical education thoughtfully provided at considerable cost to the nation, and which has had a powerful influence on the recent industrial and commercial expansion. No small part of these general results has also been due to the attention that has been paid by the Government, throughout the last century, to the scientific organisation of the education of the various bodies of teachers, both in the elementary and secondary schools.

The present system, with its latest developments in according an ever increasing degree of prominence to 'modern' subjects, is, however, considered to be an experimental one. Opinions are very divergent as to the desirability of the maintenance of its newest phase in 1901. On the one hand are those who advocate a still further advance in the number and variety of 'modern' subjects to be taught, in order to keep pace with the requirements of the times. On the other side stand those who regret to see the progressive diminution of the former classical education resulting from the present possibility of attaining in the newer 'modern' schools almost all the privileges formerly only accorded to classically educated men, and who would gladly welcome a reversion to the older order of things. It must, however, be remembered that the Prussian Government have always, even in the fully classical schools, strongly favoured the acquisition of a fair general knowledge of all those subjects usually forming part of a sound liberal education. They have never countenanced any measures tending to unduly restrict its limits by too great a devotion to classics. Another point

on which public opinion differs is as to the amount of admissible State control in educational matters. Some persons are now in favour of less, in order to give greater play to individual enterprise, which means wider diversity; while others are in favour of more, believing rather in the salutary effects of a universal uniformity, which might be still further extended.

The State administration is effected by the Minister of Education, who directly controls the universities; whereas the secondary educational institutions are under the 'Provincial School Colleges,' or controlling boards, and the primary schools are subject to the '*Bezirks-Regierungen*' (the governing Bodies of large provincial districts). Both sets of schools have their own separate inspectors, who, however, are named directly by the State. The commissions appointed for the examination of teachers in the primary and secondary schools are proposed by the 'Provincial School Colleges,' and, in the case of the latter, their appointments have to be confirmed by the Minister of Education. All provincial educational affairs are regulated by the local school

authorities, under the supervision either of the 'Provincial School Colleges' or '*Bezirks-Regierungen*,' according as to whether they concern secondary or primary education.

The Prussian Government seem to have been able to steer a satisfactory middle course between over-neglect and too much interference, and to have avoided many of the objections often urged against State education. Without it the German nation could never have risen to its present position. A satisfactory and uniform adaptation of education to the demands of material progress could not have ensued under a system of dislocated and private educational establishments, with but a small amount of State supervision.

In 1889 a Royal Edict announced that, in consequence of the dissemination of erroneous views of a social democratic nature, it would be desirable to demonstrate in the schools the impracticability of realising harmful socialistic and communistic ideas. This, it was suggested, could be done by teaching the history of modern times down to the latest date, and showing the steps taken during many generations in Prussia to improve the condition of

the working classes and the actual benefits in this respect that they had continually received at the hands of the State. The result was the eventual inclusion in all secondary schools of a sound teaching of national history during the nineteenth century, including a sketch of the general economic and social development of the country, in which was comprised the recent Social-Reform Legislation, between 1884 and 1889, as to compulsory insurance against sickness, accidents, infirmity, and old-age. (For details of these laws see special Annex on p. 323.) It was partly in consequence of this edict that the Conference on Secondary Education met in 1890. But the following considerations also led to its assembling in that year. The influence of the national schools on material progress depends largely on their elasticity in accommodating themselves to modern requirements and in grasping new ideas likely to influence the scholars. Though there was a strong feeling that some further step in this direction was necessary, individual views differed widely as to the nature of the correct form of the adjustment of the school studies to these modernising tendencies.

The Conference, therefore, met to consider all matters connected with secondary education, and the delegates were men thoroughly versed in all these questions. It drew up many recommendations, which, together with those of later Conferences, were mostly embodied in the revised curricula of 1901. The recent reforms are chiefly characterised by the promotion of schools in which classics had no place, the increase of application to 'modern' subjects in the existing classical schools, and the decided encouragement of all physical exercises. It was after 1890 that the '*Oberrealschule*' obtained almost equal privileges with the '*Realgymnasien*,' except that its 'Certificate of Maturity' did not admit to the study of modern languages at the universities, and this last disability has now also been removed. The German Emperor, on opening the 1890 Conference, had called attention to the necessity of reform in the direction of obtaining greater practical ability and less abstract knowledge, the essential point in modern times being the proper equipment of every man for the actual struggle of life. He also emphasised the need of inculcating in youths a true

German national spirit rather than one with a strong classical leaning belonging to by-gone ages. This was to be effected primarily by a proper study of the mother tongue and by a much greater attention to modern history, so that all Germans might acquire a proper understanding of the events of the nineteenth century.

The productive capacity, leading to material wealth, is measured to a great extent by the conditions of education, production, and distribution. On the first largely depend the capabilities of the other two. The exact nature, therefore, of the present lines of development in educational matters that have been laid down for the Prussian nation by its statesmen cannot but be of interest, inasmuch as they materially influence generation after generation in their successive contributions to all national growth. There are three classes of educational establishments in Prussia : elementary schools, higher schools, and the universities. It should be clearly understood that there are both public and private institutions : the latter, however, are not numerous, and consist chiefly of middle and higher schools for girls.

There are no private elementary educational establishments and hardly any middle or higher ones for boys, which is to be expected with a State system of schools whose 'Leaving Certificates' have such a distinct value for later practical life, privileges enjoyed by no private institutions, except in a few Federated States. The public schools are either State or Municipal; they are often a combination of both, and receive financial assistance from those two sources.

Elementary education is not yet regulated by any general school law, though one has long been projected by the Prussian Government. The Constitution of 1850 provided for such legislation, but it has never yet been carried out. Educational matters are still governed, to a large extent, by laws, orders, and regulations, some of old date, emanating from both the Central and Provincial Governments. The Constitution also contained provisions for a common regulation of the salaries and pensions of the teachers, who are State officials, and for the care of their widows and orphans. It had also laid down that the cost of erecting, maintaining, and enlarging the public schools

was to be defrayed by the local authorities (*Gemeinden*), but that, in case of inability to do so, the Prussian Government would make good the deficiency—a course which is still pursued everywhere to-day. Free elementary education in the Kingdom of Prussia was also provided for by a famous clause, which was, however, limited in effect by the permission accorded to the municipalities to charge fees or not, as they pleased, so long as either course received the approval of the Prussian Government. But, in practice, the contemplated general gratuitous education for the people did not come about until quite recently, because of the local inability to defray the costs of the schools without the help of fees. It is only since the early nineties that elementary education has become perfectly free in the Prussian public schools, as the State has come forward and has everywhere paid up such amounts as the municipalities and country communities (*Gemeinden*), who are by law bound to maintain the local schools, could not pay themselves. The only exception is that fees are paid when scholars belonging to one parish choose, as a matter of convenience, to go to the school of

another one instead of to their own : they then pay *Gastschulgeld* (money for the hospitality accorded them there). In Bavaria and Saxony free primary education is now the rule, but there are many exceptions. Since 1763, with later amplifications on two occasions, there has existed in Prussia the important obligation on all parents to send their children to school from the completion of the fifth year for so long a time as may be necessary to acquire that minimum amount of education which is deemed by the authorities to be indispensable. The 'Common Law Code' (*Allgemeines Landrecht*) of 1794 laid this down for the then Prussian territories ; and the obligation to do so, in dominions subsequently added, is often founded on still older laws. There is as yet no general Prussian law regulating this question. Provincial laws determine this space of time : it is fixed, usually, at the period comprised between the sixth and fourteenth completed years.

The compulsory form of education thus provided for by the Prussian State does not, however, necessarily preclude private education at home for such families as can afford it. The

Constitution of 1850 merely requires a suitable amount of knowledge to be acquired, which can be obtained by means of private tuition for the members of the better classes. Moreover, all privately educated boys are bound to present themselves at the examinations of the State schools, in order to obtain the 'Leaving Certificates' or 'Certificates of Maturity' and their inherent privileges, though they have not been through the schools that grant them. But, as a rule, the sons of the nobility and those belonging to good families do attend the secondary educational establishments, both from considerations of expediency and because of the otherwise great expense of obtaining a similar education by means of special tutors.

The education furnished in the elementary schools is not extensive, but the quality is good, and a thorough knowledge of the subjects included in their curriculum is exacted. They are German, religion, arithmetic, geometry, drawing, natural sciences, geography, history, and singing. The methods of instruction are excellent, and are eminently calculated to thoroughly interest the pupil. The number of

hours per week vary from twenty to thirty-two ; gymnastics are included for boys, and needle-work for girls. The construction and internal arrangements of the schoolhouses are under the strictest State regulations, which also provide for a sufficient amount of air, light, and ventilation.

As accessories to these elementary schools there can be established so-called 'Middle Schools,' such as *Bürgerschulen*, town and other schools, in which the same subjects are taught, but more extensively, and which often include, according to the class of pupils taken in, modern languages or practical preparatory work for industrial life. They must have at least five classes, with not over fifty pupils in each, and possess teachers duly qualified. Both the elementary and the 'Middle Schools' are called 'Lower Schools.' Their courses of study are fixed, and are adjusted to the different requirements and capabilities of the scholars.

The education afforded in the elementary schools is completed by the continuation schools, which provide the further teaching necessary for taking up practical life. Such are the industrial, agricultural, and commercial

schools, which are under the Prussian Minister of Commerce. Attendance in Prussia is not as a rule compulsory, but this question is left entirely in the hands of each municipality, which makes attendance obligatory or not as it thinks fit. In industrial employments the employers are bound (under the *Gewerbe-Ordnung*) to allow their workmen under eighteen years of age to attend the industrial continuation schools; and they have to permit women and girls to attend handwork and domestic economy schools. In the different States of Germany the laws vary with regard to continuation schools and as to compulsory attendance. The Federated Governments often assist their establishment by large money grants.

In the second category of educational establishments come the 'Higher Schools,' in which secondary education is supplied, and to which *Vorschulen*, or small preparatory schools, are often attached. It is in the former that the intellectual groundwork is afforded for a subsequent training for later professional, technical, or business occupations. The scope of work and the course of study in them are uniform in each particular kind of

school. The educational standard to be attained in each institution of the same name is identical throughout the country. They consist of two distinct divisions, the first being classical and the second 'modern' schools. In the first division are the purely classical *Gymnasien* and *Progymnasien*, with both Greek and Latin; in the second come the semi-classical *Realgymnasien* and *Realprogymnasien*, where Latin but not Greek is taught, and the purely 'modern' *Oberrealschulen* and *Realschulen* (including the former higher *Bürgerschulen*), where both the classical languages are altogether excluded. The length of the full course of studies in the higher branch of each of the three sets of schools is nine years and in the lower branch six years (formerly seven). The former period is considered to be necessary for a complete education. In the *Gymnasien* the course of study is based chiefly on the classics, whereas in all the 'Real' educational establishments the studies are principally or entirely sciences, mathematics, and modern languages. It is only since the early years of the nineteenth century, about 1817, that the latter kind of education began

to be given: before that time it had always been essentially classical. The change was brought about by the evident inadequacy of the old educational methods to supply all the modern needs of the population in regard to a due qualification for the practical conditions of business life. It was thus that the higher *Bürgerschulen* and the first *Realschulen* came into existence, and the former industrial schools were also merged into them.

With regard to the question of the examinations for scholars, it is important to remember that in Prussia no examinations ever take place unless certain specified rights result therefrom conferring privileges either for future study or for admittance to certain careers. Where there are no rights, there are no examinations. Hence there are none in the elementary schools, nor in any other schools whatever until the grade of *Realschule* in secondary education is reached, which is the lowest school that is empowered to grant a 'Leaving Certificate,' which entitles the holder to obtain the privilege of one year's service in the army, and which is not usually attained until about the age of sixteen.

‘Modern’ studies were officially recognised over forty years ago, when it was admitted by the Government that the combination of classical *Gymnasien* and modern ‘*Real*’ schools was necessary for the education of the people. And in 1871 the higher kinds of the *Realschulen* obtained certain valuable privileges in the matter of their ‘Leaving Certificates.’ In the course of time, as more and more attention was gradually paid to this new trend of public instruction, the courses of study were extended and a higher form of modern education came in which found expression in 1882 in the *Realgymnasien* (consisting of the former higher class *Realschulen*, but with more Latin than before) and *Oberrealschulen* (formerly certain technical trade schools, without Latin, in which an improved course of study was introduced). Their aims were to reach a high educational level, chiefly in natural sciences and modern languages as a necessary adjunct to the increasing industrial and commercial development. They in time attained in their final objects the same standing for a ‘modern-side’ education as the *Gymnasien* had always held for a classical one, the difference becoming

then merely one of direction in the learning acquired.

The nine years' course in the *Gymnasien*, *Realgymnasien*, and *Oberrealschulen* constitutes the full school course, after which 'Certificates of Maturity' are obtained. They certify that the candidate is fit, after the particular course of study pursued, to pass on to higher branches of education such as that furnished by the universities. But, after six years' work, 'Leaving Certificates,' similar to those granted in the *Progymnasien*, *Realprogymnasien*, and *Realschulen* after the full six years of instruction in them (formerly seven), are issued. All these 'Leaving Certificates,' however, bear very different values for a man's future advancement in life; and they have, consequently, a powerful influence in encouraging youths to obtain the best one possible. This is especially the case in the struggle to attain that grade of certificate which confers on the holder the privilege of serving a single year in the army or navy as a 'one-year volunteer' (see Chapter on 'Army and Navy' for details), instead of the usual two years of service. Of this nature are the 'Sixth Year Leaving Cer-

tificates' of the *Gymnasien*, *Realgymnasien*, and *Oberrealschulen*, as also the ordinary 'Leaving Certificates' from the *Progymnasien*, *Realprogymnasien*, and the *Realschulen* (i.e. also after six years). They are also sufficient to admit to certain schools and smaller appointments. Roughly speaking, the 'Certificate of Maturity' from the classical *Gymnasien*—that is to say, after the completion of the full nine years' course—gives admission to the university for all kinds of studies, and, therefore, eventually to all the higher professions and civil services, to examination for the profession of teachers, and, generally speaking, to all the lower professions or callings not requiring special technical knowledge. Up to 1901 similar certificates from the *Realgymnasien* only admitted men to the study of modern languages, mathematics, and natural sciences at the universities, to the military and naval services, to the examination for teachers of 'modern' subjects, and to most of the lower Government appointments; and the holders of 'Certificates of Maturity' from the *Oberrealschulen* were only entitled to study natural sciences and mathematics at

the university, to be examined for Government clerkships in the Admiralty, Inland Revenue, Survey, Dockyards, Imperial Bank, Woods and Forests, Posts and Telegraphs, the various engineering professions, and for certain 'modern-side' teaching situations in the higher schools. The above arrangements have, however, been recently altered by the imperial decree of November 1900 as to examinations and the privileges obtained by them, and by recent Conferences on educational matters in 1898 and 1899. The respective rights hitherto enjoyed under the 'Leaving Certificates' of the *Gymnasien*, *Realgymnasien*, and *Oberrealschulen* for university study have been somewhat modified. Students from all three now obtain absolutely equal privileges there for admittance to the study of medicine and philosophy (which includes classical and modern languages, mathematics, natural sciences, chemistry, political economy); but in the case of theology and jurisprudence they must pass an additional examination in Latin and Greek in order to be admitted, if coming from a school where those classical languages have not been taught. The present tendency is to make all

three classes of schools absolutely equal in this respect, so long as any subjects not taught there are subsequently acquired and the Government examination in them is passed.

It will thus be seen that whatever appointment a man wishes to obtain eventually he must previously become the possessor of a definitely laid down Government certificate of the attainment of a certain fixed standard of education after so many years of study. He is otherwise unable to enter his name for them, and cannot even continue his studies at the university without holding a 'Certificate of Maturity' from a *Gymnasium*, *Realgymnasium*, or *Oberrealschule*, which means nine years' consecutive work. There are also some 'Seven-Year Certificates' granted which carry with them privileges of different kinds. The 'Testimonial,' admitting to one year's military service, is naturally highly estimated by the public, as it not only testifies to a certain level of intellectual efficiency, but also bears an intrinsic worth commercially for the holder. Many business houses make the possession of such a certificate a condition of admission to their service, as this privilege reduces the en-

forced absence from commercial employment to one instead of two years, an advantage of considerable money value to both parties.

Thus it comes about that the State practically controls the entrance to all professions. It is, moreover, the Prussian Government alone that grants the power of conferring on the schools these different kinds of certificates, which at once mark their position in the hierarchy of the Prussian educational establishments, the class of school and the nature of its 'Leaving Certificates' being always the same. The decision of the Government as to what category each type of school is placed in depends entirely on the actual work and character of each individual institution. The result is that those educational establishments which have not attained the rank of *Gymnasien*, *Realgymnasien*, or *Oberrealschulen* are always striving to do so in order to obtain the benefits in the matter of 'Certificates of Maturity' which they *ipso facto* enjoy. The system tends to considerably raise the standard of many local schools, who hope, on account of the advantages involved in the 'Leaving Certificates,' to obtain the Government sanction to grant them.

The Government thus obtains in Prussia a far-reaching control over all secondary education that is little understood abroad. The same principles, more or less, may be said to apply to the greater part of Germany.

The question of teaching in the elementary and secondary schools has received careful attention since the beginning of the nineteenth century. The teachers in both are civil servants, having the same rights and duties as other Government officials, especially as regards pensions for themselves, their widows and orphans; and they only serve one year as 'volunteers' in the army. Those in the primary schools also enjoy certain privileges in the matter of serving on juries and of exemption from municipal taxation. They are all nominated to their posts by the Government. Even in the comparatively few remaining private schools, which find it difficult to contend with the privileged State educational establishments, they cannot teach without first passing the requisite Government examination. Teachers for the elementary schools are educated in preparatory institutions and then in State seminaries, altogether a six years' course,

beginning about the age of fifteen or sixteen, after which they present themselves for the ordinary examination. For the middle schools further Government examination is necessary.

Since the Edict of 1810 a Prussian State qualification examination has existed for teachers in the higher schools. The present conditions, precedent to admittance to it, are the possession of a 'Certificate of Maturity' from a *Gymnasium*, *Realgymnasium*, or *Ober-realschule* and a three years' attendance at some university, no degree being required. Since 1826 a probationary year of practical teaching has been exacted before a man can obtain a Government appointment, which in every case has to be confirmed by the State. The 'Directors' of *Gymnasien* and *Real-schulen* have to be approved of by the King of Prussia. In 1890 another year of professional training for the study of the methods of instruction in special seminaries attached to the schools had to be taken up, before the year of probation, for all teachers in secondary schools. This matter had formerly been quite neglected, for no special seminaries for them had previously existed. In Germany much

importance is attached to the amount of knowledge of the scientific methods of education possessed by the teachers ; with this object they now receive, during their preliminary training, special instruction. One of the questions of the present day is whether enough is being done for them in this direction and as regards facilities supplied for acquiring 'modern' subjects.

About the universities, twenty-two in number, little need be said except that they were formerly self-governing corporations. Although they are now State institutions, they still retain a certain independence, the Government leaving the courses of instruction and examinations entirely in their hands. The students enter by matriculation, and the degree of Doctor is conferred on leaving on those who choose to pass the necessary examination, the course of study being usually three years. There are no colleges, as a rule ; the students live in their own rooms, and are under no control whatever. There is no compulsion even to attend the lectures. The characteristic features of the university training are the great specialisation of work, which stands in

strong contrast to the breadth of the lower education which precedes it, and the complete freedom allowed both in teaching and learning. There are no obligations on either side, and no fixed courses of study. After leaving the university, with or without the degree of Doctor, the State examination for any learned profession has still to be passed.

The promotion of national production has received a great impetus from the manner in which the methods of technical education have been scientifically organised in Germany. It is more especially in the last twenty years that such minute attention has been paid to this subject, though some technical schools have existed for over fifty years. The various Federated Governments, moreover, have devoted large sums of public moneys to such institutions. Some of them are now of university grade with the power of conferring degrees, such as the famous Charlottenburg Technical High School at Berlin. The Emperor, in 1900, to mark his appreciation of the excellent work done by technical education in Prussia, took the remarkable step of summoning two 'Rectors' of technical high schools for life to the

‘Herrenhaus,’ or House of Lords; and in 1901 the right to grant the degree of ‘Doctor of Engineering’ was conferred on all technical high schools, an example that has since been followed in several other German States. Every Prussian university has the right as a ‘Free Corporation’ to send a Professor to sit for life in the ‘Herrenhaus,’ or House of Lords; he is proposed by the university to the King of Prussia, who then summons him. By taking the former step the Prussian monarch has placed the technical high schools socially and politically on a level with the universities.

For a long time past the development of German industries has been successfully fostered by applying to them the best available technical skill and the highest forms of scientific knowledge. Ample proof of the care taken by the State in such matters is afforded by the numerous magnificent modern laboratories which have been fitted up with lavish expenditure so as to be as perfect as possible in every respect. It is in them that first-rate technical instruction is given by experienced men, which reacts so advantageously

on German industrial progress, especially in all branches of manufacture in which the application of any kind of modern science can be brought to bear. Many valuable discoveries are also made in them, which are then practically applied to improving the methods of production. Every year sees some advance made in placing the highest technical education within the reach of all at a very moderate cost.

The subject of higher commercial education is also receiving much more attention than before. Special commercial high schools, such as those at Leipzig and Cologne, offer to the commercial community opportunities much on a par with those enjoyed in the technical high schools by persons concerned in industrial occupations.

All these momentous questions of the best form of the practical application of different kinds of necessary knowledge to the actual needs of the nation are still agitating the public and engaging the attention of the Prussian and other Federated Governments. They are by no means in a final stage; each year brings proof of further efforts in this

direction. As regards the past, there is no doubt whatever that the eminently systematic organisation of national education in Germany—whether it be secondary, technical, or commercial—has already had far-reaching effects in promoting the prosperity of the whole people.

In Chapter X., on ‘German Finances,’ there will be found (on page 311) a statement of the development of Government expenditure on education from 1871 to 1900 in Prussia. The total sum annually expended in that kingdom on primary education is now about 10,000,000*l.*, of which the municipalities and country communities (*Gemeinden*) pay some 6,000,000*l.*, leaving about 4,000,000*l.* to the account of the State. On secondary education Prussia spends about 2,400,000*l.*, of which the Government pays 600,000*l.* and the towns 1,800,000*l.* In the above sums are not included the amounts spent on pensions to teachers, their widows and orphans. The yearly cost of keeping up a high school (*Gymnasium*, *Realgymnasium*, *Oberrealschule*) varies according to the number of classes and teachers. In Berlin it is about 7,000*l.* to 7,500*l.* The expense of maintaining a *Realschule* in that

capital is, more or less, 5,000*l.* ; but in the provinces it is lower, and is sometimes about a half of that sum. These figures do not include the cost of building, repairs, &c.

All education in Germany is remarkably good and extraordinarily cheap, as will be seen from the following estimate of the cost to the scholar of secondary education. In the high schools of Berlin the yearly payment is only 6*l.* The total fees for the full nine years' course in them are, therefore, 54*l.*, to which must be added some 36*l.* for books, copy-books, &c. (4*l.* a year). This makes 90*l.* altogether, if the boy is living in his parents' house. If boarding elsewhere, some 50*l.* per annum must be added for actual living, besides 5*l.* for small expenses, which is 495*l.* for the nine years. Thus for more or less 600*l.* a father can keep his son acquiring the very best of learning during the whole of nine years in the Prussian high schools. If the youth then goes on to the university for a further four years' study, the expenses would be altogether about 400*l.*, and for taking a degree &c. another 25*l.* The total cost, consequently, for the thirteen years of a complete education may

be roughly put at 1,000*l.* for young men of the better middle classes. But the university part of this estimate can be considerably reduced for poorer persons, for many university students have to do there with 50*l.* a year, and even less. As has been pointed out, primary education, in Prussia at any rate, is now free : the above estimate, therefore, covers all educational expenses whatever for a man from the earliest age up to the time he leaves the university.

CHAPTER X

GERMAN FINANCES

THE finances of the German Empire from 1872, the year after its foundation, to 1900 afford a valuable record of the progress of national prosperity. In the short retrospective summary presented here will be found a faithful reflection of the rapid economic development of the effective resources of the nation.

‘The German Empire consists of twenty-five separate States, and of the “*Reichsland*” of Alsace-Lorraine, all having budgets of their own. If to the Prussian ordinary revenue of 123,613,300*l.* for 1900 there be added some 60,799,000*l.* for all the remaining Federated States, the resulting total of 184,412,000*l.* will probably not be far from the approximate total ordinary revenue of all the German States jointly in 1900. To this estimated total must be added the joint revenue, accruing

from such receipts as are paid into the Imperial Exchequer, for the maintenance of the Empire, and which have not already appeared in the budgets of the States as part of their own separate revenue. This amounts to 46,920,438*l.* in the 1900 imperial estimates, and would bring the whole effective Government revenue of the Empire and of the States jointly to about 231,332,000*l.* in that year. Similarly, the whole debt of Germany may be roughly estimated at 644,508,000*l.*; consisting of 329,584,000*l.* of Prussian debt (1900 estimates), *plus* 200,000,000*l.* for the debt of the remaining States, *plus* 114,924,000*l.* of the separate imperial debt.’¹

Before considering the actual financial resources of an Empire which, ‘in its international position, must be looked upon as a potential factor carrying behind it an ordinary revenue of, more or less,’ 231,000,000*l.* at the opening of the twentieth century, it must be pointed out that a large portion of this total revenue is derived from State railways. If the receipts obtained from them are deducted, the

¹ This and all the following passages are quoted by permission from No. 2,400 of the *Annual Series, 1900, of Diplomatic and Consular Reports.*

probable remaining amount of revenue would be about 136,632,000*l.* in 1900.

‘ In dealing with the finances of Germany as a whole, there are two categories of financial figures to study—(1) those of the Empire, and (2) those of the separate Federated States which collectively form the German Empire. Of the latter only Prussia is dealt with in detail here. All these States, it must be remembered, have sources of revenue and debt of their own, and they have also their separate budgets. The financial relations of the Empire and States are, briefly, the following: The Empire, as authorised by its Constitution, entirely controls foreign affairs and the navy. The cost of the army appears in the imperial estimates, but under three heads: (1) Prussia and the States administered by her from a military point of view; (2) Saxony; and (3) Wurtemberg. The estimates for these three are voted by the “ Reichstag ” in Berlin; while, for Bavaria, they are drawn up in Munich, but the mode of expenditure is left entirely to her, though the totals also appear in the Imperial Budget. The Empire further administers almost entirely the postal and telegraph

services (except in Bavaria and Wurtemberg). In other departments the general administration is in the hands of the officials of the separate States, but, for the sake of uniformity, some central institutions belong to the Empire, such as the Imperial Workmen's Insurance Office and the Imperial Railway Office.

‘Accounts between the Empire and the States are adjusted by a somewhat elaborate system of payments and repayments. According to Article 70 of the Constitution, an excess of expenditure over revenue on the part of the Empire is to be reimbursed by charging the deficit to the Federated States jointly, who then pay in to the Imperial Exchequer individually what are called “matricular contributions” (*“Matrikular Beiträge”*), which are assessed according to the respective population of each separate State. The amount so due per head is fixed in each budget by the Reichstag. A modification of this principle was made in 1879 by the customs tariff law of that year, Section 8 of which (known as the “*Franckenstein Clause*”) provided that, from the proceeds of the customs duties and of the tobacco tax, a sum of 6,500,000*l.* should be credited direct to the

Imperial Exchequer, and that the remaining balance of those receipts should then be handed over to the Federated States as assignments (*Ueberweisungen*) in order to enable them to meet their "matricular contributions" to the Empire. By the Imperial Stamp Law of 1885 and by the Spirit Excise Law of 1887 the net amount of the imperial stamp duties and of the excise on spirits was added to these assignments especially made to the States. The reform was made in order to remove the injustice of a uniform "matricular" payment per head imposed equally on the poor population of one State and on the rich population of another. By throwing the bulk of the "matricular" burden on the assigned customs and other receipts, this inequality of contribution was almost entirely avoided, and the imperial charge fell more uniformly on the whole population of the Empire. If the above-mentioned assignments to the Federated States do not in any year entirely meet the total amount of the "matricular contributions" due to the Empire, then the remaining deficit is still made up by "matricular" assessments of so much per head on the population of each State.

And, in the contrary event, where the special assignments exceed the total of the “matricular contributions” due to the Empire, then the surplus balance is paid by the Imperial Exchequer to the Federated States, and the division among the States is effected on the same plan as that followed in levying the “matricular contributions.”

‘The financial resources of the Empire consist of customs duties, tobacco tax, sugar, salt, and spirit taxes, beer tax (which is not shared by the South German States), stamp duties of various kinds, and of statistical fees. Then there are the three paying properties—the posts and telegraphs, the railways (in Alsace-Lorraine), and the printing office. Bavaria and Wurtemberg do not receive any share of the revenue from the posts and telegraphs, nor do they contribute to their cost, as they have separate systems of their own. Out of the revenue derived from the customs duties and the tobacco tax, 6,500,000*l.* goes direct to the Imperial Exchequer, and the remainder is assigned to the Federated States, who return it to the Empire, more or less, in the form of “matricular contributions.” The proceeds of

stamp taxes (except those on playing cards and on bills of exchange) and of the excise on spirit are applied in a similar manner as assignments to meet the contributions of the States to the cost of the maintenance of the Empire.

‘The German Empire had an exceptionally favourable start; it owed much of its initial prosperity to the sound financial basis on which it was placed by the receipt of the French war indemnity of 200,000,000*l.* This indemnity was paid during the years 1871 to 1874, with the interest agreed upon. With certain further sums due from other sources, such as the contribution of the city of Paris and special taxes in France, and, after paying 13,000,000*l.* to the French Government on account of the railways in Alsace-Lorraine, the total sum available, with interest up to 1877, was 210,354,820*l.* All the expenses for the war were repaid out of this indemnity. Some 28,000,000*l.* went to establish the “*Reichsinvalidenfonds*” (a fund out of which pensions are granted to old soldiers); 16,000,000*l.* were expended on reorganising the army; 10,800,000*l.* were applied to alterations in and

to arming German fortresses ; 8,580,000*l.* went to building strategic railways in Alsace-Lorraine ; 6,495,000*l.* were expended on restoring and arming fortresses in those provinces ; and 6,000,000*l.* were stored in gold as an imperial war treasure for use in case of emergencies. By 1877 the debt of the former North German Confederation was practically paid off, and the debt of the new Empire only amounted to 800,000*l.*

‘ A comparison of the finances in 1872 (final Budget) and 1900 (estimates) is annexed, which shows the development of the Empire’s financial resources in the course of those twenty-nine years and its corresponding expenditure. The total ordinary revenue of the Empire rose from 20,894,694*l.* in 1872 to 28,181,000*l.* in 1880, to 50,180,000*l.* in 1890, and to 73,256,557*l.* in 1900, an increase of 52,361,863*l.* in the twenty-nine years. The financial resources, therefore, rose by about 250 per cent. Meanwhile the growth of the imperial public debt must be traced during the same period. In 1872 there was no imperial public debt, properly so called ; but the Empire, as the legal successor to the

North German Confederation, had to take over its existing debt of about 13,000,000*l.* This was soon paid off, almost entirely out of the French war indemnity. The first real imperial loan was in 1875 for 800,000*l.* In 1880, the debt of the Empire had risen to 10,902,000*l.* (interest thereon, 436,000*l.* yearly), and in 1890 to 55,899,000*l.* (interest thereon, 2,068,000*l.*) ; and by 1900 it had increased to 114,924,000*l.* (interest thereon, 3,757,000*l.*). Out of the whole amount of debt contracted up to that time, 73,865,000*l.* has been for the army, 17,912,000*l.* for the navy, 6,587,000*l.* for various imperial railways ; and 5,245,000*l.* towards the cost of the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal. These items make up over 103,000,000*l.*, which may be said to have been practically expended on the defences of the Empire.

‘It is to be remarked that a real amortisation of public debt of the Empire has not yet ever taken place. But occasionally, under certain special laws, a part of specified surpluses from the “assigned taxes” are applied, as far as they go, to reduce the amount of new loans sanctioned for imperial objects. The total amount, therefore, of authorised credits granted by the

Reichstag is merely reduced by the sums thus made available. Altogether 7,145,000*l.* have been so used from 1895 to 1898. This system forms a peculiar kind of sinking fund ; it might be better described as a mere cancellation, not of actual, but of authorised future emissions of State obligations (credits).

‘ There was, therefore, in 1900 an effective revenue of 73,256,557*l.*, out of which only 3,757,000*l.*, or some 5 per cent., were paid in interest on imperial public debt, leaving 69,499,557*l.* for expenditure. From 1896 to 1899 the surplus yield of the actual budget over the estimates for revenue paid directly into the Imperial Exchequer had averaged over 1,400,000*l.* a year. And in the same four years the excess of the separate imperial revenue from the “ assigned ” customs and excise taxes paid to the Federated States over the estimated receipts had been respectively 3,854,000*l.*, 3,327,000*l.*, 3,432,000*l.*, and 1,779,000*l.* Therefore, the total yearly increased revenue from both branches of the imperial resources over the estimates, from 1896 to 1899, has been respectively 5,277,000*l.*, 4,594,000*l.*, 4,960,000*l.*, and 3,190,000*l.*

‘The improvement in the financial situation is to be found chiefly in the increased yield of the following branches of revenue. (1) The customs duties, which rose from 4,744,000*l.* in 1872 to 23,661,000*l.* in 1900, an increase of 18,917,000*l.*, or of nearly 402 per cent. (2) The excise taxes, which rose from 3,458,000*l.* in 1872 to 15,825,000*l.* in 1900, an increase of 12,367,000*l.*, or of about 354 per cent. (3) The (gross) receipts from posts and telegraphs, which rose from 4,998,000*l.* in 1872 to 19,673,000*l.* in 1900, an increase of 14,675,000*l.* or of about 294 per cent. (4) The stamp taxes, which rose from 254,000*l.* in 1872 to 3,277,000*l.* in 1900, an increase of 3,023,000*l.* (5) The administration of the imperial railways in Alsace-Lorraine, which rose from 1,260,000*l.* in 1872 to 4,309,000*l.* in 1900. Out of this growth of receipts under customs, excise, and stamp taxes, it is impossible to calculate what part is due to the natural development of industries and commerce and what part is the direct result of new taxation, as also of alterations in the customs tariff.

‘Turning now to the expenditure of the Empire, we find a corresponding rapid growth

of expenses with the increase of the general wealth of the country. The ordinary expenditure rose from 22,200,000*l.* in 1872 to 28,555,000*l.* in 1880, to 40,836,000*l.* in 1890, and to 63,451,000*l.* in 1900, an increase of 41,251,000*l.* in the twenty-nine years, or of about 180 per cent. The largest developments of such expenditure were under the following heads: (1) For the army, which rose from 13,339,000*l.* in 1872 to 27,074,000*l.* in 1900, an increase of 13,735,000*l.*, or of about 103 per cent. (2) For posts and telegraphs, which rose from 4,295,000*l.* in 1872 to 17,134,000*l.* in 1900, a rise of 12,839,000*l.*, or of 300 per cent. (3) For cost of public debt, which rose from about 29,000*l.* in 1872 to 447,000*l.* in 1880, to 2,413,000*l.* in 1890, and to 3,885,000*l.* in 1900, an increase of 3,826,000*l.* (4) For the navy, which rose from 742,000*l.* in 1872 to 3,697,000*l.* in 1900, an increase of 2,955,000*l.*, or of 398 per cent. (5) For the general pension fund, which rose from 1,043,000*l.* in 1872 to 3,408,000*l.* in 1900, an increase of 2,365,000*l.* (6) For the Home Office, which rose from 41,000*l.* in 1872 to 2,438,000*l.* in 1900, an increase of 2,397,000*l.*

It is to be noticed that, under this last head, the increase from 450,000*l.* in 1890 to 2,438,000*l.* in 1900 is accounted for by the yearly grant of about 1,500,000*l.* as the imperial donation for the purposes of workmen's insurance which began in 1889. The extension of foreign relations in the twenty-nine years is shown by the increased expenses under the head of Foreign Office, which were only 219,000*l.* in 1872, but which, in 1900, were put at 626,000*l.* a year.

‘ If the total expenditure (i.e. the ordinary recurring and non-recurring, plus the extraordinary non-recurring expenditure¹) be added together, the total in 1872 was 27,657,000*l.* and in 1900 77,216,000*l.*, an increase of 49,559,000*l.*, or of about 180 per cent. And the total of such expenditure in the same two years respectively had been: (1) for the army, 16,750,000*l.* and 33,299,000*l.*; (2) for the posts and telegraphs, 4,396,000*l.* and 17,811,000*l.*; (3) for the navy, 1,554,000*l.* and 8,110,000*l.*; (4) for imperial railways, 983,000*l.* and 3,984,000*l.*

‘ The expenditure of the German Empire in

¹ That is to say, expenditure defrayed out of the proceeds of loans.

1900, on its army and navy alone, was estimated at over 41,000,000*l.*, 33,299,000*l.* for the army and 8,110,000*l.* for the navy, out of a total imperial expenditure of 77,216,000*l.*, or of over 53 per cent. of the whole.

‘The first naval programme dates from soon after the foundation of the North German Confederation, when 5,625,000*l.* was asked for during the ten years 1868 to 1877 for expenditure on so-called naval purposes (including the fortifying of certain ports) and of which only about 2,850,000*l.* was for ships and their armaments. The Imperial Government later asked for a further 5,319,000*l.* for the period 1873 to 1877. With the addition of this sum, what is known as the 1873 programme was carried out. And, according to a return laid before the “Reichstag” in 1884, of the total of nearly 11,000,000*l.* granted, 10,500,000*l.* had been spent by 1883 on naval objects, of which, however, only 5,387,000*l.* appear to have been expended on men-of-war and their armaments. At that date the navy consisted of 7 armoured frigates and 5 armoured corvettes, 26 protected cruisers, 17 training ships, and 32 ships all told for coast defences—i.e. 1 ironclad, 11 armoured

gunboats, 11 torpedo boats, 4 ships for laying mines, 1 second-class gunboat, and 4 dispatch boats. There were building, in addition, 1 protected cruiser, 3 corvettes, 2 armoured gunboats, and 24 torpedo boats. From 1873 to 1896 some 20,000,000*l.* were spent on the navy : the ordinary non-recurring expenditure averaged 700,000*l.* a year from 1881 to 1889, and 1,575,000*l.* from 1889 to 1896. On November 30, 1897, a naval programme was laid before the "Reichstag," which was characterised by the expenditure being fixed for a short term of years and not requiring the yearly approval of that House, so that the Empire could count upon possessing the proposed new strength of the fleet by 1904. (See Chapter on "The Army and Navy" for numbers of ships, p. 116.)

'The total cost for the six years 1898 to 1903 was not to exceed 20,445,000*l.* for non-recurring expenditure, being 17,835,000*l.* for the construction and armaments of the new ships and 2,610,000*l.* for other non-recurring expenses; the increase in the recurring expenditure would not be more than about 250,000*l.* a year.

‘ A special clause provided that, should the sum total of recurring and special expenditure in the Admiralty Department exceed in any financial year the sum of 5,876,274*l.* and if the natural resources of the Empire did not suffice to cover the excess, such surplus should not be covered by raising or adding to the indirect imperial taxes the burden of which would fall on articles of universal consumption. The Government also declared that, if extra taxation had to be raised under this Bill, the Federated States of the Empire would take care that such taxation should fall on those best able to support it.

‘ The Imperial Naval Bill of 1900, which replaced that of 1898, comprised a very much more extended scheme for the navy. Roughly speaking, it may be said to have demanded the doubling of the strength of the German navy, as fixed under the Bill of two years previously. The exact demands were thus formulated : (1) The number of ships as fixed in the 1898 Bill were to be increased by the following vessels : 1 flagship and 2 squadrons of 8 line-of-battle ships each, as well as 2 more vessels in reserve, 8 large and 15 small cruisers. (2)

The former 1898 establishment was to be reduced by 2 divisions of 4 coast defence vessels each. (3) In the contemplated increase the 8 coast defence vessels were to count as line-of-battle ships until they were replaced. (4) Of the above increase, 6 large and 7 small cruisers were required for foreign service. (5) The first and second squadrons were to form the active fighting fleet of 2 tactical units, and the third and fourth squadrons the reserve fighting fleet of 2 further tactical units. (6) Of the former, all the ships, and of the latter half the number of the line-of-battle ships and of cruisers, were always to be kept in commission. (7) When manœuvres took place, the ships of the reserve fighting fleet were to be temporarily put in commission. (8) The funds required for this scheme were to be fixed yearly in the Imperial Budget.

‘The total cost of this programme for the fleet alone, which it was calculated would take sixteen years to completely carry out, was put at 80,000,000*l.*, of which 30,150,000*l.* was to be raised by loans and 49,850,000*l.* was to come out of the ordinary yearly revenue. This expenditure was for the construction of ships

(including the replacing of out-of-date vessels by new ones) and for their armaments. In addition, 13,050,000*l.* was to be spent on dockyards and harbours, of which 8,282,000*l.* was to come out of loans and 4,768,000*l.* out of the ordinary revenue. The grand total asked for from 1901 to 1916 was, therefore, 93,050,000*l.*, of which 38,432,000*l.* was to be met out of loans year by year, and 54,618,000*l.* out of the revenue during those sixteen years: there would, in addition, be an increased current expenditure for the maintenance of the navy, for the naval pension fund, and for the interest on loans.

‘The general ordinary recurring expenditure for the navy under that Bill was to be 7,040,000*l.* in 1901, rising to 15,313,500*l.* in 1916. The items in the 1901 total would consist: (1) of 3,995,500*l.* for the ordinary current expenses of the maintenance of the navy; (2) of the newly authorised 1,885,000*l.* for building new ships and their armaments, to be defrayed out of revenue; (3) of 760,500*l.* for the newly authorised interest on loans contracted for the construction of new vessels, and their armaments, as well as for dockyards and harbours; (4) of 200,500*l.* for dockyards and harbours, to

be defrayed out of revenue ; (5) of 198,500*l.* for the increased Naval Pension Fund. By 1916 these items respectively would have risen to : (1) 8,135,500*l.* ; (2) 4,344,000*l.* ; (3) 1,969,000*l.* ; (4) 396,500*l.* ; (5) 468,500*l.* The average yearly increase of the whole ordinary expenditure for the navy would be, therefore, about 556,500*l.* The increase over the immediately preceding year for 1901 would be 628,000*l.*, falling to 465,500*l.* in 1916. But the relative proportions that it was proposed to raise out of revenue and loans respectively might be altered if circumstances required it. Three large and three small vessels were to be put on the stocks every year.'

The whole of these calculations were, however, altered by the changes in the Bill effected by the 'Reichstag,' which reduced the number of cruisers. The correct amounts, as since estimated, are given in Chapter IV. on 'The Army and Navy' (see p. 118).

'The development of army expenditure has been as follows. In 1872 the ordinary expenditure on the army only amounted to some 13,339,000*l.* Even subsequently to the 1881, 1887, and 1890 Army Bills, the

ordinary recurring expenses did not exceed 19,997,000*l.* in 1890, though some further 13,000,000*l.* appeared in that year for extraordinary expenses. In 1893 the peace footing was again raised, and it was then that the two years', instead of the former three years', service with the colours was established for the first time; and this necessitated great additional expenses of all kinds, quite apart from the greater cost of the increased army in itself. So that ordinary expenditure rose from over 21,784,000*l.* in 1891 to 24,110,000*l.* in 1894. Three years later came the grant of large sums for altering and improving the artillery, for which a total sum of about 4,292,000*l.* was expended in the three years from 1897 to 1899. The ordinary recurring expenditure in the 1900 estimates was put at 27,074,000*l.*, and the total at 33,299,000*l.*'

The finances of the German colonies are not included here, as they are fully dealt with in the chapter on 'Colonial Possessions.'

'The financial relations of the Kingdom of Prussia (and other States) to the German Empire have been fully explained above, so that all that is required now is to sketch

Prussian finances separately: those of the other Federated States are not touched upon.

‘The total revenue of Prussia was 33,250,000*l.* in 1872, 39,891,000*l.* in 1880, and 86,981,000*l.* in 1890. The 1900 estimates put it at 123,613,000*l.* But the sum, comparable with former years, was only 119,987,185*l.*; because the gross receipts, instead of the net profits, have been entered as revenue from the lotteries since 1892. The increase was, therefore, one of 86,736,644*l.*, or of about 210 per cent. since 1872. Meanwhile, the public debt stood at 64,363,000*l.* (interest, 2,478,000*l.*) in 1872, at 75,769,000*l.* (interest, 3,122,000*l.*) in 1880, and at 261,549,000*l.* (interest, 10,046,000*l.*) in 1890. In 1900 it stood at 329,584,000*l.* (interest, 11,537,000*l.*), an increase of 265,221,000*l.*, or of about 414 per cent., since 1872. It is, however, important to note that this large debt was almost entirely contracted for the purchase of the State railways, which are by far the most important of the paying properties of the Prussian State. The gross receipts from these lines were, in the same four years, 7,308,000*l.*, 11,787,000*l.*, 44,258,000*l.*, and 67,933,000*l.*; so that it will be seen that the immense sum, stand-

ing as public debt, brings in a very fairly remunerative revenue to the Prussian Exchequer. Consequently, it should be looked upon, not as unremunerative debt in the ordinary sense, but as a profitable investment of the State.

‘The chief branches of Prussian revenue have shown a wonderful expansion since 1872. That of the State railways has been mentioned above. Then comes, from 1879 onwards, the share of the “assigned taxes” from the Imperial Exchequer which is handed over to Prussia, and out of which the Prussian “matricular contribution” to the maintenance of the Empire is met as far as possible. In 1880 these “assigned taxes” were 1,152,035*l.*, in 1890 11,451,833*l.*, and in 1900 they were put at 15,659,716*l.* Next in importance are the direct taxes, which rose from 6,852,000*l.* in 1872 to 9,917,000*l.* in 1900—the proceeds of the mines and salines, which rose from 5,543,000*l.* in 1872 to 8,353,000*l.* in 1900—and the indirect taxes, which rose from 3,997,000*l.* in 1872 to 4,165,000*l.* in 1900. Classified together, the proceeds of the paying properties of the State and of the taxes have increased by 68,360,000*l.* since 1872, or by over 252 per cent.

‘The favourable position of Prussian finances up to 1900 was shown by the average yearly increased yield over that of the immediately preceding year for the period 1896 to 1900 (estimates), which was not less than 6,548,000*l.* for total revenue, being made up of 5,555,000*l.* for the State properties and taxes, of 688,000*l.* for the dotations and general finance control (in which are included the “assigned taxes”), and of 305,000*l.* for the administrative receipts. The State railways alone showed an average yearly improvement in the receipts of 3,858,000*l.*; for the other branches of revenue the yearly development was, for the State mines and salines, 690,000*l.*, for the direct taxes, 535,000*l.*, for the indirect taxes, 248,000*l.*, and for forests, 269,000*l.*

‘Turning to the ordinary non-recurring expenditure, we find that the State railways came first with 4,459,000*l.* in 1872, 6,781,000*l.* in 1880, 27,653,000*l.* in 1890, and 40,536,000*l.* in 1900, an increase of 36,077,000*l.* in the twenty-nine years, a result of the gradual purchase by the State of almost all the railways in Prussia. The second largest item of expense was that for the support of the

Empire—namely, of the “matricular contribution.” In 1880 this payment was 1,978,000*l.*; in 1890, 9,149,000*l.*; and in 1900 it stood for 16,015,000*l.* This expenditure was more or less balanced by the proceeds of the “assigned taxes” yearly handed since 1879 to Prussia by the Imperial Exchequer. Next in order came the interest on the public debt (almost entirely railway debt), which stood at 2,478,000*l.* in 1872; and in 1900 it figured for 11,537,000*l.* Then came the expenditure on the administration of the State mines and salines, which rose from 3,651,000*l.* in 1872 to 7,090,000*l.* in 1900.

‘The expenditure under the head of the Ministry of Education &c. showed a rise from 1,076,000*l.* in 1872 to 6,979,000*l.* in 1900, an increase of 5,903,000*l.*, or of over 548 per cent., mostly spent on educational purposes. In 1871 the total ordinary recurring expenditure on education was 455,000*l.*; in 1881, 1,595,000*l.*; in 1891, 3,843,000*l.*; and in 1900 it stood at 5,384,000*l.*, an increase of 4,929,000*l.*, or of over tenfold. And this does not include a sum of 281,000*l.* for industrial schools in that year. The Prussian State was, therefore, then spending 5,665,000*l.* on the education of

the people. Besides this, there was a sum of 464,000*l.* for non-recurring expenditure for 1900, making a grand total of 6,129,000*l.*, which amounted to about 5 per cent. of the whole revenue, without counting any part of the 875,000*l.* spent jointly on religious and educational objects.

‘The ordinary expenditure in the two years in 1871 and 1900 respectively has been: for elementary education 197,000*l.* and 4,103,000*l.*, an increase of 3,906,000*l.*, or of twentyfold; for higher schools 84,000*l.* and 617,000*l.*, an increase of 533,000*l.*, or over sixfold; for the universities, 131,000*l.* and 511,000*l.*, an increase of 380,000*l.*, or of nearly threefold, and on technical education in those years 29,000*l.* and 109,000*l.* respectively. In 1881 only 15,000*l.* was spent on industrial schools; the 1900 estimates allowed a sum of 281,000*l.* for this object. It will thus be seen that the Prussian Government have devoted great care to the important question of education, especially in the matter of technical and commercial education. As regards the latter, for instance, the receipts in 1890 were 2,500*l.* and the expenditure 93,000*l.*, as compared with 30,000*l.* and 195,000*l.* respectively in 1897.’

COMPARISON OF BUDGET OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE IN 1872 AND 1900.

(See 'Explanatory Notes' on p. 316.)

REVENUE

From—	Final Budget of 1872	Budget Estimates of 1900	Comparison of 1872 with 1900
	£	£	£
I. Customs and excise	8,202,124	39,486,250	+ 31,284,126
II. Stamps	254,022	3,277,350	+ 3,023,328
III. Posts and Telegraphs (gross receipts)	4,998,348	19,672,646	+ 14,674,298
IV. Printing Office (gross receipts)	—	375,800	—
V. Railways belonging to the Empire* (gross receipts)	1,259,894	4,308,750	+ 3,048,856
VI. Imperial Bank	—	742,725	—
VII. Administrative receipts	60,204	927,773	+ 867,569
VIII. Imperial Invalid Fund	1,413,938	1,503,814	+ 89,876
IX. Sale of fortifications	—	10,333	—
X. Surplus from former years	—	1,536,347	—
XI. Sums granted by cer- tain Federated States in lieu of certain common Imperial receipts	590,298	778,650	+ 188,352
XII. Matricular contribu- tions of the Federated States	4,115,866	26,336,319	—†
Total of ordinary revenue	20,894,694	98,956,757	†
XIII. Extraordinary revenue	8,941,621	3,959,920	— 4,981,701
Revenue, grand total	29,836,315	102,916,677	—†

* The lines in Alsace-Lorraine and a portion of the Wilhelm-Luxemburg Railway in the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg.

† No comparable.

NOTE.—This table, as well as the 'Explanatory Notes' to it, is quoted by permission from No. 2,400 of the *Annual Series, 1900, of Diplomatic and Consular Reports*.

314 THE GERMAN EMPIRE OF TO-DAY

From—	Final Budget of 1872	Budget Estimates of 1900	Comparison of 1872 with 1900
REVENUE—(cont.)			
	£	£	£
Total of ordinary revenue, I. to XII., comparable in 1872 and 1900 (after de- ducting for 1900 the 25,700,200 <i>l.</i> under XII., already included under I.). (See Note 3 below for explanation, p. 317) .	20,894,694	73,256,557	+ 52,361,863
XIII. Extraordinary revenue	8,941,621	3,959,920*	— 4,981,701
Amended and comparable grand totals	29,836,315	77,216,477	+ 47,380,162
EXPENDITURE			
On—			
A. Ordinary Recurring Ex- penditure.			
I. Bundesrath (paid out of funds under V.) .	—	—	—
II. Reichstag	6,790	34,663	+ 27,873
III. Chancellor	—	11,650	+ 11,650
IV. Foreign Office . . .	219,209	626,703†	+ 407,494
V. Home Office	41,312	2,438,879	+ 2,397,567
VI. Army	13,339,236	27,074,783	+ 13,735,547
VIA. Military Court . . .	—	13,078	+ 13,078
VII. Navy	742,642	3,697,322	+ 2,954,680
VIII. Justice	11,952	105,968	+ 94,016
IX. Treasury	58,739	25,967,936	—†
X. Railway Office	—	19,595	+ 19,595
XI. Public Debt, interest on	29,403	3,885,025	+ 3,855,622
XII. Audit Office	13,833	42,821	+ 28,988
XIII. General Pension Fund	1,043,689	3,408,206	+ 2,364,517
XIV. Imperial Invalid Fund	1,413,938	1,503,814	+ 89,876
XV. Posts and Telegraphs	4,295,664	17,134,669	+ 12,839,005
XVI. Printing Office . . .	—	265,247	+ 265,247
XVII. Administration of Railways	983,646	2,921,765	+ 1,938,119
Total, A	22,200,053	89,152,124	—†

* Chiefly from the proceeds of loans.

† Includes expenses of Colonial Department of Foreign Office.

‡ Not comparable. See 'Explanatory Notes' on p. 316.

On—	Final Budget of 1872	Budget Estimates of 1900	Comparison of 1872 with 1900
EXPENDITURE—(cont.)			
B. Ordinary Non-recurring Expenditure.	£	£	£
I. Reichstag . . .	—	—	—
II. Foreign Office . .	5,296	1,102,471*	+ 1,097,175
III. Home Office . .	41,404	169,790	+ 128,386
IV. Posts and Telegraphs	100,480	676,596	+ 576,116
IVA. Printing Office . .	—	112,796	+ 112,796
V. Army . . .	3,411,105	4,938,920	+ 1,527,815
VA. Military Court . .	—	1,500	+ 1,500
VI. Navy . . .	811,464	2,398,425	+ 1,586,961
VII. Justice . . .	—	—	—
VIII. Treasury . . .	562,500	1,265	— 561,235
VIIIA. Imperial Debt . .	525,000	—	— 525,000
VIIIB. Administration of Railways . . .	—	402,750	+ 402,750
VIIIC. Railway Office . .	—	120	+ 120
IX. Deficits from former years . . .	—	—	—
Total, B . . .	5,457,249	9,804,633	+ 4,347,384
C. Extraordinary Non- recurring Expendi- ture ‡			
I. Home Office . . .	—	—	—
II. Posts and Telegraphs	—	—	—
III. Army . . .	—	1,285,320	+ 1,285,320
IV. Navy . . .	—	2,015,050	+ 2,015,050
V. Railways . . .	—	659,550	+ 659,550
Total, C . . .	—	3,959,920	+ 3,959,920
A. Total of ordinary recur- ring expenditure . .	22,200,053	89,152,124	—†
B. Total of ordinary non- recurring expenditure .	5,457,249	9,804,632	+ 4,347,383
C. Total of extraordinary non- recurring expenditure ‡.	—	3,959,920	+ 3,959,920
Grand total of expenditure . .	27,657,302	102,916,676	—†

* Includes cost of administration of the German Colonies.

† Not comparable. See Explanatory Notes, p. 316.

‡ Paid out of the proceeds of loans.

On—	Final Budget of 1872	Budget Estimates of 1900	Comparison of 1872 with 1900
EXPENDITURE—(cont.)			
A. Total of ordinary recurring expenditure comparable in 1872 and 1900 after deducting in 1900 the 25,700,200 <i>l.</i> under IX., which is no real item of expenditure. See Note 3 below for explanations (p. 317) .	£	£	£
	22,200,053	63,451,924	+ 41,251,871
B. Ordinary non-recurring expenditure	5,457,249	9,804,632	+ 4,347,383
Amended and comparable totals of ordinary expenditure	27,657,302	73,256,556	+ 45,599,254
C. Extraordinary non-recurring expenditure	—	3,959,920	+ 3,959,920
Amended and comparable grand totals, A, B, and C together	27,657,302	77,216,476	+ 49,559,174

Explanatory Notes to Imperial Budgets

‘1. In accordance with the wish of the Reichstag, the form of the estimates for 1900 has been amended. In former years the net receipts only of the three imperial undertakings, worked by the Empire for revenue—

namely, the posts and telegraphs, printing office, and railways—were inserted. In 1900, however, the gross receipts are entered on the revenue side, and the expenses appear on the expenditure side. This alteration makes, as compared with previous years, an increase on both sides of the Budget of 1900 of 20,321,681*l.*; so that the amounts of ordinary revenue and expenditure, comparable with budgets in former years, balance at 78,635,075*l.* (102,916,677*l.* less 20,321,681*l.* and 3,959,921*l.* of extraordinary revenue); and the similar sums for the totals of ordinary and extraordinary revenue and expenditure balance at 82,594,996*l.* (102,916,677*l.* less the 20,321,681*l.*).

‘2. In order to make the 1872 final budget strictly comparable with the 1900 estimates, under the heads III. and IV., as explained in Note 1, the gross receipts and expenses respectively of the posts and telegraphs and of the railways (the printing office not existing in 1872) have been inserted on both sides of the account, instead of the net profits being entered on the revenue side only.

‘3. It is necessary to point out that, in the imperial estimates of 1900, there is a sum of

25,700,200*l.*, which forms, on the revenue side, part of the total "matricular contributions" (26,336,319*l.* under XII.), and which, on the expenditure side, forms part of the total "imperial treasury" (25,967,936*l.* under IX.). This sum of 25,700,200*l.* already forms part of the total "Customs and Excise" (39,486,250*l.* under I.) on the revenue side, and is the estimated value of the special custom and excise taxes assigned under various laws to the Federated States jointly for the purpose of defraying, as far as possible, their matricular contributions. It is merely for convenience of account that the 25,700,200*l.* again re-appear, firstly, on the expenditure side under IX., and, secondly, are re-entered on the revenue side under XII. That sum, under those two latter heads, is no item of real revenue or expenditure; it merely passes, in form only, from the Empire, as assignments (*Ueberweisungen*) paid out of Customs and Excise (I. on revenue side), to the Federated States, as payments made to them under Imperial Treasury (IX. on the expenditure side). And from the States it passes back to the Empire, as forming the greater part of the "matricular contributions"

(XII. on the revenue side). Therefore, deducting that sum from both sides of the account, the real effective amounts of ordinary revenue and expenditure for 1900 will balance at 73,256,557*l.*; and the sum at which the total of ordinary and extraordinary revenue and expenditure balances is, in the same way, 77,216,477*l.* In Imperial Budgets since 1879, when the system of "assignments" was started, similar deductions must be made to obtain the amount of the effective revenue and expenditure.'

NOTE

The financial position of the Empire has, however, considerably changed since 1900 (to which date only the finances are carried), and, unfortunately, for the worse. The imperial resources of revenue, which from 1895 to 1900 had shown satisfactory increases with an average improvement of over 1,600,000*l.* per year from the customs and sugar duties and from the salt, alcohol, brewing, and stamp taxes, will for 1901, in spite of certain raised rates for the last-mentioned category, probably only expand by some 650,000*l.* Other sources of

revenue, such as posts and telegraphs, also show decreases for 1900 and 1901 ; but they are partly accounted for by actual reductions in the postal rates. This unfavourable turn in the financial resources of the German Empire is due to the gradual reduction of the former remarkably rapidly rate of industrial and commercial development which began to show itself in the latter part of 1900, and which in 1901 even led to a serious depression throughout Germany, accompanied by the heavy failure of various banking and other institutions, which was bound to react unfavourably on the imperial revenues.

In Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Hesse, and especially in certain smaller States, the financial conditions, formerly prosperous, have been seriously affected, and in some of the latter it has been necessary to increase taxation to meet the requirements of their Governments. The larger matricular contributions, amounting to a further 1,200,000*l.*, about to be placed upon them in 1902 to make up part of the total deficit in the imperial estimates of 2,950,000*l.*, are an additional heavy burden. The balance of 1,750,000*l.* is to be raised by loan, as it has

been thought inadvisable to place any heavier charge on their resources, which would be detrimental to the economic interests of each State and would merely mean the raising of that sum by an increase of the local public debts. In many Federated States there has been a great falling-off in the returns of the State railways, which often form a considerable portion of the revenues of their Governments. This is particularly the case in Prussia, where all the undertakings worked by the State, more especially the railways and mines, are showing less satisfactory returns.

APPENDIX

IMPERIAL LEGISLATION SINCE 1871 FOR IMPROVING THE CONDITION OF THE WORKING CLASSES.

A NATURAL consequence of the commercial and industrial development has been that a great deal of attention has been paid, since the foundation of the Empire, to the position of the working classes in Germany. The Imperial Government has done much to improve their condition since 1871 ; in this respect, indeed, no other country has accomplished so much for the welfare of its people. During the earlier part of the nineteenth century there had been many measures passed in the Kingdom of Prussia protecting the workman. The principles, embodied in those laws dealing with trades generally, together with some improvements to ensure a better care of health and life, were made obligatory in 1869 on all the States of the North German Confederation, and were, shortly afterwards, extended to the whole of the German Empire. This latter step implied an extension of the protection, in some States, to

classes who had never received it before, and in others to persons who were less favoured in this respect than the inhabitants of Prussia. But at the same time, and by a later law, the former obligation to belong to sick, burial, and relief societies, which had been equivalent to an insurance providing funds for those eventualities, was no longer maintained. The system of voluntary provision in these respects did not, however, work well, and only about a half of the total number of people requiring relief of some kind obtained it; and this fact, together with other events in the seventies connected with the growth of socialistic principles, contributed to decide Bismarck and the Imperial Government to take up the matter of compulsory insurance. The Emperor, William I., in his historic Message to the 'Reichstag' in 1881, which marked an epoch in the records of social-reform legislation in Germany, announced an extensive programme for an organised insurance for the working classes, not only against accidents, but also against sickness, infirmity, and old age. They had, however, meanwhile also benefited by the 1878 Law providing for the greater protection of women, young people, and children, and for an obligatory inspection of factories.

The first of the famous Imperial Insurance Laws passed the Reichstag in 1883. It made insurance against sickness compulsory in the whole Empire. It was a measure which, with its various later extensions, perhaps applies to a half of the population. The majority of persons earning salaries or wages, not amounting to a total of 100% per annum, are now

included within its scope. They are not, however, bound by the law to insure in any particular association ; they may do so in any of the various societies formerly existing, or in the new kinds of institutions then established. The insurance payments are calculated on average wages, and the rate varies, according to the nature of the employment, from 1 per cent. to 3 per cent. of the wages earned. Except in 'Free Associations' and a few other cases, two-thirds of the total contribution falls on the insured, and the remaining one-third on the employer.

In 1884 there followed the law of compulsory insurance against accidents. As early as 1871 an 'Imperial Employers' Liability Act' (extended in scope in 1873) had made certain employers of labour responsible for the death of or injury to their employees if caused by their negligence or that of their agents : and it regulated the question of compensation. The principle had been previously recognised in the courts of certain States, but the practice had not been universal. The object of the Accident Insurance Law is, partly, to cover accidents caused by the workmen's negligence (not, therefore, included under the 1871 and 1873 Acts), as well as many cases of former doubtful liability. But a more important result was the possibility of insuring against the unavoidable risks incurred by many classes of workers, especially in particularly injurious or dangerous occupations, which had been previously overlooked. The law provides compensation for the injured person in case of bodily harm, and for his family in case of death. In the latter event the burial expenses

are paid, and allowances are made to widows and children. Its provisions, with later amplifications, cover, more or less, all classes of workmen and administrative officials employed in mines, smelting works, factories, pits, quarries, wharves, salt works, building trades, &c., if earning incomes under 100*l.* a year, and to the seafaring and agricultural populations. These insurances are, as a rule, effected under the guarantee of the Empire by special 'Trade Associations' (*Berufsgenossenschaften*), which are composed of the employers of labour either in restricted districts or belonging to the whole of Germany, on whom the whole of the insurance falls. They are (except in Bavaria, Saxony, and Wurtemberg, which have their own offices) under the 'Imperial Insurance Department,' which was established for the purpose of controlling, not administering, their affairs, which were otherwise left entirely in their own hands. It also has jurisdiction in all disputes arising out of insurance matters.

The third great insurance law against old age and infirmity passed the Reichstag in its final form in 1888, after receiving the approval of the present Emperor, William II., who also, on ascending the throne, favoured the continuation of the social-reform legislation for the benefit of the working classes begun in the reign of his grandfather. It became law in the following year, but was further modified in 1900. Generally speaking, it made insurance against old age and infirmity obligatory after the completion of the sixteenth year upon all workmen, journeymen, assistants, domestic servants (male and female), clerks, all

persons employed on sea or river shipping, apprentices, and, since 1900, on foremen, teachers, tutors, and ships' captains, if earning under 100*l.* a year. Exceptions are made in favour of imperial officials and those of the Federated States, soldiers employed as workmen, and persons entitled to or already receiving a sufficient pension from other sources. All persons holding situations with a yearly salary of 100*l.* to 150*l.* are permitted to voluntarily insure on the condition of being under forty years of age : a like privilege is accorded to certain small employers, independent home workers, and others not bound to insure. The law provides a suitable pension at the age of seventy, however fit the recipient may be, after 1,200 weeks (about twenty-three years) of contributions, a maximum limit which may not be exceeded ; and it grants (unless a claim lies under the 'Accident Law') a pension at any age during total or partial infirmity, by which is meant mental or bodily incapacity to earn one-third of the general average earnings in the neighbourhood by similar persons in good bodily and mental condition, after payment of contributions during a minimum term of 200 weeks (nearly four years), with, however, liberty to continue contributing indefinitely. The latter form of pension is usually the higher in value, and may be taken in lieu of the old age one if there be at the same time genuine disability to work. There are, for both forms of pension, five graduated classes of wage earners with a yearly income of (1) 17*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.* or less, (2) up to 27*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.*, (3) up to 42*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.*, (4) up to 57*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.*, and (5) over 57*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.* The principle

adopted is that the average amount, not the total of the actual earnings, determines the wages class. In the case of old age pensions, persons in these five classes, on attaining the age of seventy, receive pensions of of 5*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.*, 7*l.* 0*s.* 5*d.*, 8*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.*, 10*l.* 0*s.* 5*d.*, and 11*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.*, which include the 2*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.* imperial subsidy in each case, and the fixed initial sums varying in each wages class. In the case of the infirmity pension, the amount drawn in the five wage-earning classes, after a minimum of 200 contributory weeks of insurance, consists, in addition to the imperial subsidy of 2*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.*, of two parts: firstly, of an initial sum of 3*l.*, 3*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.*, 4*l.*, 4*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.*, and 5*l.* respectively, and, secondly, of an addition of about 0 $\frac{3}{8}$ *d.*, 0 $\frac{3}{4}$ *d.*, 1*d.*, 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ *d.*, and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* (3, 6, 8, 10, and 12 Pfennige) for each contributory week. After long periods of contribution, therefore, the amount of an infirmity pension rises in strict proportion to the actual sums that have previously been paid in by the insured person. The minimum total pensions are 5*l.* 16*s.* 5*d.*, 6*l.* 6*s.* 0*d.*, 6*l.* 14*s.* 5*d.*, 7*l.* 2*s.* 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.*, and 7*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.* respectively; and, after fifty years, or 2,500 contributory weeks, they amount to 9*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.*, 13*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.*, 16*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.*, 19*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.*, and 22*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.*

The weekly payments made to obtain the benefits of this law, for both forms of pension jointly, are as follows in the five classes: about 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ *d.*, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.*, 3*d.*, 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ *d.*, and 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* (14, 20, 24, 30, and 36 Pfennige). Insured women who marry, as well as widows and their children, obtain the return of half their contributions if 200 have actually been paid in.

The total costs of this imperial insurance system are borne partly by the Empire and partly by the persons directly concerned. The Imperial Exchequer contributes a fixed donation of 2*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.* to each pension granted, either for old-age or infirmity (its outlay in this respect in 1901 being about 1,704,000*l.*), and pays for that part of the contributions falling within that period, spent by each insured person in fulfilling his obligations to the State by service in the army or navy. The remainder is obtained from the employers and employed in the form of the above-mentioned weekly contributions paid equally by both, which are periodically so fixed as to cover the whole expenses of these insurance arrangements. The scheme is carried out by special insurance institutions in each State or Province, which, however, are under the general control of the Imperial Insurance Department in Berlin. The latest complete statistical returns, which are for 1898, give the total number of insured persons under the 'Sickness,' 'Accident,' and 'Infirmity and Old Age' Laws as 9,230,000, 18,246,000, and 12,660,000 respectively.

On the whole, these three laws appear to have worked well, though there is reason to believe that many persons liable under the 'Infirmity and Old-Age Law' escape from the legal obligation to insure. The first two have given general satisfaction, but the third at first called forth considerable opposition and criticism among some sections of the community. In 1890 further efforts were made to improve the lives of the workpeople and their general welfare. The Emperor

then issued his two famous Edicts. The first proclaimed that it was the duty of the State to so regulate the hours, duration, and nature of labour as to secure among the working classes the maintenance of health, the precepts of morality, their economic requirements, and their claim to equal rights. It also suggested the possibility of a more friendly interchange of ideas between the masters and men by the admittance of representatives of the workmen to deliberations with regard to matters of mutual concern. The practical result of this step was the passing of the 1891 law dealing with trades, and which improved the conditions of labour, especially as regards women and children. The result of the second Edict was the assembling at Berlin of an International Congress in 1890 with delegates from most nations to deal with labour problems generally, and especially as regards the protection of workmen. It took the view that the existing German legislation on this great question was satisfactory in most respects.

INDEX

- 'ABGEORDNETENHAUS,' Prussian, 51
- Accident Insurance Law, 325
- Adalbert, Prince, first Prussian Admiral, 113
- Admiral Staff, 120
- Admiralty, Imperial, formed, 119
- Agrarian dissatisfaction with commercial policy, 159, 162
- 'Alliance of the Three Kings,' 24
- Alsace ceded to France, 11; taken by Germany, 37
- Alsace-Lorraine incorporated as a 'Reichsland,' 42; railways bought from France, 171
- Altona joins German Customs Union, 140, 143
- 'Amazona,' first ship of Prussian Navy, 112
- Angra Pequena colonised by Germany, 201
- Army, the, during the Germanic Confederation, 83; under the North German Confederation, 85; present constitution, 87, 91; 'Reserved Rights' of South German States, 89, 90; Emperor's rights as supreme Commander, 92, 94; growth of, 94; universal compulsory service, 96; 'volunteers,' 99; cost of, 128, 300
- Aschaffenburg transferred to Bavaria, 19
- Assembly, Frankfort National, 23, 24, 112, 172
- Augsburg a free town, 13; Diet retires to, 29
- Austerlitz, battle of, 13
- Austria, revolution in, 22
- Austrian and Prussian rivalry, 24-26
- Austrian, Russian, and British Alliance against France, 13
- Austro-German Society of Inland Waterways, 193
- 'Autonomous' tariff, 61-64; proposed, 149, 151
- BADEN joins Napoleon I., 13; becomes a Grand Duchy, 14; secret alliance with Prussia, 30; reserved rights under the Empire, 52

332 THE GERMAN EMPIRE OF TO-DAY

- Bavaria fights for Napoleon I., 13; receives the Tyrol and Vorarlberg, 13; Elector becomes King, 14; secret agreement with Prussia, 30; rights independent of the Empire, 52; primary education free, 267
- Bavarian Army commanded by the King, 88; its expenditure independent of the Empire, 90; has its own Court of Appeal, 90
- Bavarian Palatinate railways private undertakings, 180
- Bazaine, Marshal, besieged in Metz, 36
- Belgium, commercial treaty with, 157
- Berlin entered by Napoleon I., 16
- 'Bezirks-Regierungen,' 260
- Bismarck appointed Prussian Prime Minister, 27; becomes Prussian Minister of Commerce, 60; introduces protective tariff, 61; advocates a strong Navy, 114; introduces a Tariff Bill, 144; favours Free Trade, 147; recommends protective tariff, 150; opposes Caprivi's commercial policy, 158; supports nationalisation of railways, 175, 177; views on colonial policy, 199, 208; favours compulsory insurance for working classes, 324
- Bismarck Archipelago, 207
- Bougainville Island, 244, 245
- Bremen a free town, 13; annexed to France, 17; joins German Customs Union, 143
- Bremerhaven a naval port, 122
- Buka Island, 245
- Bülow, Count von, supports development of Colonial Possessions, 210
- 'Bundesfeldherr,' 125
- Bundesrath, 31; constitution, 46; consent necessary for declaration of war, 51; nominates Court of Appeal, 60
- 'Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch,' 70
- 'Bürgerschulen,' 269
- CAMAROONS, Germany colonises the, 203; statistics, 236
- Canal dues, 187
- Canals, German, State undertakings, 166
- 'Capitulanten,' 100
- Caprivi's, Chancellor von, tariff treaties, 65, 158
- Caroline Islands purchased from Spain, 205, 244
- China, Expeditionary Force to, 126; colonisation in, 247
- Choiseul Island, 244, 245
- Civil Code new Imperial, 80
- Civil rights, equal, for all subjects of the Empire, 44
- Colonial policy adopted, 197; its causes, 199; Bismarck's views, 199, 208; Prince Hohenlohe's support, 210; under Count von Bülow, 210
- Colonial statistics, 221

- Colonial Trade Society, 224
 Colonial troops, German, 219
 Colonies, difference between German and British, 211; constitutional position of, 213-216
 Colonies, Western Pacific, statistics, 247
 Commerce, growth of Germany's foreign, 65
 Commercial Code, North German Confederation, 33
 Commercial treaty with Austria, 156; with Russia, 160
 Compulsory education, 267
 Compulsory insurance for working classes, 324
 Confederation of the Rhine, 14; dissolved, 17
 Congress of Vienna, 18
 Conscription, universal, 95
 Constitution, German, of 1871, 41-51, 52, 53; as to army and navy, 86, 91, 95, 105; as to railways and waterways, 165, 173, 187; as to Colonies, 213
 Constitutional government declared by Germanic Confederation, 20
 Continuation schools, Prussian, 269
 Corn duties, 153
 Council, German Federal, 31, 46
 Court of Appeal, Imperial, 59
 Criminal Code introduced by North German Confederation, 33
 Customs Law of 1818, Prussian, 129, 131
 Customs Parliament, 137
 Customs Union Treaty, 33
 Cuxhaven a naval port, 122
 DAMARALAND a German colony, 203
 Danzig shipbuilding-yard, 122
 Dar-es-Salaam, German dock at, 124
 Debt of German Empire, 289; growth of, 295
 Delagoa Bay, subsidised steamship line to, 226
 Denmark defeated by Austria and Prussia, 27
 'Deutschland' steamship, 75
 Diet, German, established at Frankfort, 20; opposed to constitutional government, 21
 Diplomatic representatives, States receiving foreign, 52
 Dortmund-Ems Canal, 189
 EAST AFRICAN STEAMSHIP COMPANY, 75
 Economic position of Germany, 55
 Education, German technical, 282; commercial, 284
 Education in Prussia in 1808-18, 254; State control, 255; existing system, 264; elementary education, 265; compulsory, 267; cost of, 285, 311; free, 287
 Educational principles, 252
 Electric traction in Germany, 181

334 THE GERMAN EMPIRE OF TO-DAY

- Elementary education in Prussia, 265
- Emperor, William I. proclaimed, 38
- Emperor cannot declare war independently, 51; his powers over Army, 92; over Navy, 120
- Empire, German, dissolved by Napoleon I., 15
- Employers' Liability Act, 325
- English commercial competition, 148
- Erfurt, German National Parliament meets at, 25
- 'Ersatzreserve,' the, 97, 102
- Expenditure of the Empire, 298; of Prussia, 311
- Export Unions, German, 69
- FACTORY legislation, 324
- Federal Council. *See* Bundes-rath
- Fees for education, 286
- Financial resources of Germany, 293; development, 295
- Foodstuffs, railway rates for, in times of famine, 174
- France claims German territory, 34
- Francis II. resigns German crown, 15
- 'Franckenstein clause' of tariff law, 291
- Franco-Prussian War commences, 35
- Frankfort a free town, 13; part of German Confederation, 19; seat of the Diet, 20; 'Vorparlament' meets at, 23; incorporated in Prussia, 31
- Frankfort, Treaty of, 38, 144
- Frederick the Great, Navy of, 110
- Frederick William III. joins Russia against Napoleon, 17
- Frederick William IV. of Prussia refuses German Imperial Crown, 24
- Free towns reduced in number, 13
- Free Trade movement in Germany, 144; Bismarck's advocacy, 147
- French frontier advanced to Rhine, 12
- French retreat from Russia, 17
- French Revolution, effects of, on Germany 21
- GAMBLING-TABLES, public, suppressed, 59
- German East Africa, 203, 204; population and products, 227
- German East African Railway Company, 230
- German Legations at Berlin, 48
- German South-West Africa, 233; statistics, 234
- German State Railway, first, 168
- German unification initiated, 33
- 'Germania' shipbuilding-yard, 72
- Germanic Confederation formed, 18; constitution and objects, 19; dissolved, 29; North German Confederation formed

- by Prussia, 31; its growth, 32; Southern States admitted, 38
- Gold standard adopted, 60
- Gravelotte, Battle of, 36
- Greece, commercial treaty with, 161
- 'Gross Admiral,' title assumed by William II., 120
- Gross-Lichterfelde cadets, 104
- Grosser-Kurfürst of Brandenburg, 110
- Gymnasien, 271
- HAMBURG** a free town, 13; annexed to France, 17; restored, 18; joins German Customs Union, 143
- Hamburg-American Steamship Company, 76
- Hankow, German settlement at, 247
- Hanover given to Prussia, 14; created a kingdom, 19; annexed by Prussia, 31
- Hanse Towns, 17, 19; position and privileges of, 139
- Heligoland ceded to Germany, 42
- 'Herrenhaus,' Prussian, 51
- Hesse-Cassel ceded to Prussia, 31; joins Zollverein, 132
- Hesse-Darmstadt and Prussia, secret agreement between, 30
- Hohenlohe, Prince, attempts to form a Railway Union, 175; favours colonial policy, 210
- Hungarian Revolution, 25
- IMPERIAL INSURANCE DEPARTMENT**, 326
- Imperial Naval Bill (1900), 303
- Imperial Railway Office established by Bismarck, 179
- Imperial School Commission for Secondary Education, 253
- Industrial schools, 269, 270, 272, 312
- Infirmity Insurance Law, 326
- Insurance, compulsory for working classes, 324
- International Inland Waterways Congress, 189
- Inter-State wars, 12
- Isabel Island, 244, 245
- Italy joins Prussia against Austria, 28; commercial treaty with, 157
- JALUIT COMPANY**, 219, 242
- Jasmund, first Prussian naval battle, 113
- Jena, Battle of, 16
- Jerome Buonaparte made King of Westphalia, 16
- John, Archduke of Austria, head of German central Government, 23
- KAISER WILHELM CANAL**, 121
- 'Kaiser Wilhelm II.' steamship, 75
- Kaiser Wilhelms Land, 207
- Kiaochow, German naval station, 123, 248
- Kiel becomes a naval base, 114; 'Germania' Yard at, 72

Königgrätz, Battle of, 29
 Krupp's shipbuilding-yard, 72

LABOUR Congress at Berlin, 330

'Landsturm,' 93, 96, 102

'Landwehr,' 96, 102

Legislation, progress of, 58-60 ;
 on behalf of industrial classes,
 323

Leipzig, Battle of, 17

Lisbon, Treaty of, 232, 236

London, Treaty of, 31

Lorraine ceded to Germany, 37

Lübeck a free town, 13; annexed
 to France, 17

Lüderitz, Herr, seeks German
 protection for Angra Pequena,
 201

Lunéville, Peace of, 12

Luxemburg, French attempt to
 purchase from Holland, 34 ;
 independence of, 42

MACMAHON, MARSHAL, attempts
 to relieve Metz, 36

Marianne Islands bought from
 Spain, 205, 244

Marine Cabinet, 120

Maritime progress, 71

Mars-le-Tour, Battle of, 36

Marshall Islands a German
 protectorate, 203, 242

'Matricular contributions,' 291

Mecklenburg States join
 Zollverein, 137

Mercantile marine, German, 75

Metric weights and measures,
 uniform, 58

Metz, siege of, 36; surrenders, 37

Midland Canal, proposed
 Prussian, 191

Military relations of Federated
 States to Empire, 52, 89, 90

Ministry of Marine, Prussian,
 founded, 113

Moltke, General von, 36

Mozambique, subsidised ship-
 ping line to, 226

Muhesa-Tanga railway, German
 East Africa, 231

NAPOLÉON I. seizes Hanover,
 13; enters Vienna, 13;
 dissolves the German Em-
 pire, 15; captures Berlin, 16;
 retreats from Russia, 17;
 abdicates, 18; escapes from
 Elba, 18

Napoleon III. declares war
 against Prussia, 35; sur-
 renders to William I., 36
 deposed and retires to Eng-
 land, 37

Nassau annexed by Prussia, 31

National Assembly, Prussian,
 22; for Germany, 23

National policy and develop-
 ment, 56

Navigation Treaty with France,
 146

Navy originally Prussian, 87;
 conscription, 104; Reserve,
 105; 'volunteers,' 106; de-
 velopment, 110; future
 strength, 117; constitutional
 position of, 124; cost of, 128,
 300

- Navy Bill of 1898, 78 ; of 1900, 303
 New Britain. *See* Bismarck Archipelago
 New Guinea, German settlement founded in, 203 ; charter granted to New Guinea Company, 241 ; becomes German colony, 241
 New Ireland. *See* Bismarck Archipelago
 Nikolsburg, Prusso - Austrian peace preliminaries drawn up, 29
 North German Confederation. *See* Germanic Confederation
 North German Lloyd Company, 75
 Nuremberg a free town, 13

 'OBERREALSCHULEN,' 273
 Officers, Army, supply of, 103
 Old Age Insurance Law, 326

 PACIFIC, Western, Colonies, statistics, 247
 Paris taken by the Russo-German Alliance, 18 ; besieged by Germans, 37
 Paris Exhibition, German goods at the, 69
 Parliament, Imperial, 46
 Parliament, National, meets at Erfurt, 25
 Parliament, Prussian, 51
 Peace of Lunéville, 12
 Peace of Paris, first, 18 ; second peace, 19
 Peace of Prague, 29
 Peace of Presburg, 13
 Peace of Tilsit, 16
 Peace of Westphalia, German territory reduced by, 11
 Pelew Islands purchased, 205, 244
 Poland, Prussian, given to Saxony, 16
 Political meetings prohibited, 21
 Pomerania ceded to Sweden, 11 ; given to Prussia, 19
 Population, growth of, 56
 Posen incorporated with Prussia, 19
 Postal service subsidies, 75
 Postal Subsidy Bill, first, 72
 Prague, Peace of, 29
 Presburg, Peace of, 13
 Press censorship, German, introduced, 21 ; abolished, 22
 Protectionist movement in Europe, 155
 Protective system, German, 61 ; induces foreign protests, 155
 Prussia declares war against France, 16 ; revolution in, 22 ; constitutional government established, 22 ; war with Austria, 28 ; secret alliance with South German States, 30
 Prussian aggression, 12 ; rivalry with Austria, 24 ; foundation of Navy, 112 ; Ministry of Marine, 113 ; Customs Law of 1818, 131 ; canal statistics, 188 ; revenue, 307 ; expenditure, 311

338 THE GERMAN EMPIRE OF TO-DAY

Prussian State Railway statistics, 183; passenger fares, 185; goods rates, 186

RAILWAY privileges for German deputies, 50

Railways, German, mostly State property, 166; construction, 167; want of uniformity, 171; legislation, 172

'Realgymnasien,' 273

'Realschulen,' growth of, 257

'Reichsland,' Alsace-Lorraine incorporated as, 42

Reichstag, 31, 46; its constitution, 49; duration, 50

'Reservatrechte' of South German States, 52

Reserve, Army, 93, 99, 101; Navy, 93, 105

Revenue of German Empire, 288; Prussian, statistics, 307

Revolutions in Prussia and Austria, 22

Rhine Confederation, 14; dissolved, 17

Rhine, improvement in navigation, 190

Roumania, commercial treaty with, 159

Rügen transferred to Prussia, 111

Russia, French retreat from, 17

SAARBRÜCKEN, Battle of, 36

Salzburg given to Bavaria, 17

Samoan Islands, German possessions in, 205

Savai Island, 245

Saxony, Elector created King, 16; Army commanded by King, 88; primary education free, 267

Schleswig-Holstein, disputes concerning, 27

School Commission for Secondary education, Imperial, 253

School fees, 286

Secondary education in Prussia, 258; State supervision, 260

Sedan taken by William I., 36

'Seewehr,' 93, 103

Servia, commercial treaty with, 159

Seven Years' War, Navy during the, 110

Sickness Insurance Law, 324

Social reform legislation in Germany, 324

Solomon Islands, German colonisation, 203

South German States join Napoleon I., 13

South-West African Protectorate, 203

Spain, tariff war with, 160

Spanish succession causes Franco-Prussian War, 3

State railway system, advantages of, 177

'Statthalter' of Alsace-Lorraine, 42

Strasburg, Germans capture, 37

Subsidies to shipping, 72, 75

Swakopmund, 234

Swedish Pomerania becomes Prussian, 19

- Switzerland, commercial treaty with, 157
- TANGA-MUHESA railway, German East Africa, 231
- Tariff, Protective, 61, its effect on exports, 62-64
- Technical education in Germany, 282
- Teltow Canal, electrical haulage on, 191
- Thirty Years' War, results of, to Germany, 11
- Thuringia joins the Zollverein, 132
- Tientsin, German settlement at, 247
- Tilsit, Peace of, 16
- Togoland becomes a German colony, 203; statistics, 238
- Tonga Island, rights ceded to Britain, 206
- Torpedo-boats no longer built, 123
- Trade Associations, 326
- Trade statistics, German, 66
- Treaty of Frankfort, 38, 144
- Treaty of Lisbon, 232, 236
- Treaty of London, 31
- Treaty of Navigation with France, 146
- Troops, German Colonial, 219
- Tsingtau, German Colonial free port, 249
- Tyrol transferred to Bavaria, 13
- UNIFICATION of Germany initiated, 33
- Universities, admission to, 276, 281; representation in 'Herrenhaus,' 283
- Uppingtonia (Boer republic) becomes German protectorate, 236
- Upolu Island, 245
- Upper Rhenish Palatinate transferred to Bavaria, 19
- Usambara railway line, German East Africa, 231
- VERSAILLES, William I. proclaimed German Emperor at, 39
- Vienna, Congress of, 18
- 'Volunteers,' army, 99; navy, 106
- Vorarlberg given to Bavaria, 13
- 'Vorschulen,' 270
- WATERLOO, Battle of, 19
- Water-transport, 187
- Western Pacific Colonies, statistics, 247
- Westphalia, Jerome made King, 16
- Westphalia, Peace of, 11
- Westphalia and Berg become Prussian, 19
- Wilhelmshaven acquired by Prussia, 113
- Wilhelmshöhe, Napoleon III. a prisoner at, 36
- William I. becomes King of Prussia, 26; captures Napoleon III., 36; proclaimed German Emperor, 38

340 THE GERMAN EMPIRE OF TO-DAY

- | | |
|---|---|
| William II.'s Edicts concerning
the working classes, 330 | secret agreement with Prussia,
30; independent rights under
the Empire, 52; Army com-
manded by the King, 88 |
| Windhoek, 234 | Wurzburg given to Bavaria, 19 |
| Witu placed under German rule,
240; transferred to Britain,
232 | |
| Working classes in Germany,
323 | ZOLLVEREIN established by Prus-
sia, 21, 132; replaced by
Customs Union Treaty, 33,
137 |
| Wörth, Battle of, 36 | |
| Wurtemberg assists Napoleon I.,
13; Elector created King, 14; | |

A Classified Catalogue

OF WORKS IN

GENERAL LITERATURE

PUBLISHED BY

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO.,

39 PATERNOSTER ROW, LONDON, E.C.

91 AND 93 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK, AND 32 HORNBY ROAD, BOMBAY.

CONTENTS.

	PAGE		PAGE
<i>BADMINTON LIBRARY (THE)</i>	12	MENTAL, MORAL AND POLITICAL	
BIOGRAPHY, PERSONAL MEMOIRS, ETC.	8	PHILOSOPHY	16
CHILDREN'S BOOKS	31	MISCELLANEOUS AND CRITICAL	
CLASSICAL LITERATURE, TRANS- LATIONS, ETC.	22	WORKS	38
COOKERY, DOMESTIC MANAGEMENT, ETC.	36	POETRY AND THE DRAMA	23
EVOLUTION, ANTHROPOLOGY, ETC.	20	POLITICAL ECONOMY AND ECO- NOMICS	20
FICTION, HUMOUR, ETC.	25	POPULAR SCIENCE	29
<i>FUR, FEATHER AND FIN SERIES.</i>	14	RELIGION, THE SCIENCE OF	21
FINE ARTS (THE) AND MUSIC	37	<i>SILVER LIBRARY (THE)</i>	33
HISTORY, POLITICS, POLITY, PO- LITICAL MEMOIRS, ETC.	1	SPORT AND PASTIME	12
LANGUAGE, HISTORY AND SCIENCE OF	19	<i>STONYHURST PHILOSOPHICAL</i> <i>SERIES</i>	19
LOGIC, RHETORIC, PSYCHOLOGY, ETC.	16	TRAVEL AND ADVENTURE, THE COLONIES, ETC.	10
		WORKS OF REFERENCE	31

History, Politics, Polity, Political Memoirs, etc.

Abbott.—A HISTORY OF GREECE.
By EVELYN ABBOTT, M.A., LL.D.
Part I.—From the Earliest Times to the
Ionian Revolt. Crown 8vo, 10s. 6*d.*
Part II.—500-445 B.C. Crown 8vo,
10s. 6*d.*
Part III.—From the Peace of 445 B.C. to
the Fall of the Thirty at Athens in
403 B.C. Crown 8vo, 10s. 6*d.*

Abbott. — TOMMY CORNSTALK :
being Some Account of the Less Not-
able Features of the South African War
from the Point of View of the Australian
Ranks. By J. H. M. ABBOTT. Crown
8vo, 5s. net.

Acland and Ransome.—A HAND-
BOOK IN OUTLINE OF THE
POLITICAL HISTORY OF ENG-
LAND TO 1896. Chronologically
arranged. By the Right Hon. A. H.
DYKE ACLAND and CYRIL RANSOME,
M.A. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Allgood. — CHINA WAR, 1860 :
LETTERS AND JOURNALS. By
Major-General G. ALLGOOD, C.B.,
formerly Lieut. G. ALLGOOD, 1st Division
China Field Force. With Maps, Plans,
and Illustrations. Demy 4to, 12s. 6*d.*
net.

History, Politics, Polity, Political Memoirs, etc.—continued.

ANNUAL REGISTER (THE). A Review of Public Events at Home and Abroad, for the year 1900. 8vo, 18s.

Volumes of **THE ANNUAL REGISTER** for the years 1863-1899 can still be had. 18s. each.

Arnold.—**INTRODUCTORY LECTURES ON MODERN HISTORY.** By THOMAS ARNOLD, D.D., formerly Head Master of Rugby School. 8vo, 7s. 6d.

Ashbourne.—**PITT: SOME CHAPTERS ON HIS LIFE AND TIMES.** By the Right Hon. EDWARD GIBSON, Lord ASHBOURNE, Lord Chancellor of Ireland. With 11 Portraits. 8vo, gilt top, 21s.

Ashley.—**SURVEYS, HISTORIC AND ECONOMIC: a Volume of Essays.** By W. J. ASHLEY, M.A. 8vo, 9s. net.

Bagwell.—**IRELAND UNDER THE TUDORS.** By RICHARD BAGWELL, LL.D. (3 vols.) Vols. I. and II. From the First Invasion of the Northmen to the year 1578. 8vo, 32s. Vol. III. 1578-1603. 8vo, 18s.

Baillie.—**THE ORIENTAL CLUB, AND HANOVER SQUARE.** By ALEXANDER F. BAILLIE. With 6 Photogravure Portraits and 8 Full-page Illustrations. Crown 4to, 25s. net.

Besant.—**THE HISTORY OF LONDON.** By Sir WALTER BESANT. With 74 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 1s. 9d. Or bound as a School Prize Book, gilt edges, 2s. 6d.

Bright.—**A HISTORY OF ENGLAND.** By the Rev. J. FRANCK BRIGHT, D.D.

Period I. **MEDIEVAL MONARCHY:** A.D. 449-1485. Crown 8vo, 4s. 6d.

Period II. **PERSONAL MONARCHY.** 1485-1688. Crown 8vo, 5s.

Period III. **CONSTITUTIONAL MONARCHY.** 1689-1837. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.

Period IV. **THE GROWTH OF DEMOCRACY.** 1837-1880. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Bruce.—**THE FORWARD POLICY AND ITS RESULTS; or, Thirty-five Years' Work amongst the Tribes on our North-Western Frontier of India.** By RICHARD ISAAC BRUCE, C.I.E. With 28 Illustrations and a Map. 8vo, 15s. net.

Buckle.—**HISTORY OF CIVILISATION IN ENGLAND, FRANCE, SPAIN AND SCOTLAND.** By HENRY THOMAS BUCKLE. 3 vols. Crown 8vo, 24s.

Burke.—**A HISTORY OF SPAIN** from the Earliest Times to the Death of Ferdinand the Catholic. By ULICK RALPH BURKE, M.A. Edited by MARTIN A. S. HUME. With 6 Maps. 2 vols. Crown 8vo, 16s. net.

Caroline, Queen.—**CAROLINE THE ILLUSTRIOUS, QUEEN-CONSORT OF GEORGE II. AND SOMETIME QUEEN REGENT: a Study of Her Life and Time.** By W. H. WILKINS, M.A., F.S.A., Author of 'The Love of an Uncrowned Queen'. 2 vols. 8vo, 36s.

Chesney.—**INDIAN POLITY: a View of the System of Administration in India.** By General Sir GEORGE CHESNEY, K.C.B. With Map showing all the Administrative Divisions of British India. 8vo, 21s.

Churchill (WINSTON SPENCER, M.P.).

THE RIVER WAR: an Historical Account of the Reconquest of the Soudan. Edited by Colonel F. RHODES, D.S.O. With 34 Maps and Plans, and 51 Illustrations from Drawings by ANGUS McNEILL. Also with 7 Photogravure Portraits of Generals, etc. 2 vols. Medium 8vo, 36s.

THE STORY OF THE MALAKAND FIELD FORCE, 1897. With 6 Maps and Plans. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

LONDON TO LADYSMITH VIA PRETORIA. Crown 8vo, 6s.

IAN HAMILTON'S MARCH. With Portrait of Lieut.-General Ian Hamilton, and 10 Maps and Plans. Crown 8vo, 6s.

History, Politics, Polity, Political Memoirs, etc.—continued.

Corbett (JULIAN S.).

DRAKE AND THE TUDOR NAVY; with a History of the Rise of England as a Maritime Power. With Portraits, Illustrations and Maps. 2 vols. Cr. 8vo, 16s.

THE SUCCESSORS OF DRAKE. With 4 Portraits (2 Photogravures) and 12 Maps and Plans. 8vo, 21s.

Creighton (M., D.D., late Lord Bishop of London).

A HISTORY OF THE PAPACY FROM THE GREAT SCHISM TO THE SACK OF ROME, 1378-1527. 6 vols. Crown 8vo, 5s. net each.

QUEEN ELIZABETH. With Portrait. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

HISTORICAL ESSAYS AND REVIEWS. Edited by LOUISE CREIGHTON.

De Tocqueville.—**DEMOCRACY IN AMERICA**. By ALEXIS DE TOCQUEVILLE. Translated by HENRY REEVE, C.B., D.C.L. 2 vols. Crown 8vo, 16s.

Dickinson.—**THE DEVELOPMENT OF PARLIAMENT DURING THE NINETEENTH CENTURY**. By G. LOWES DICKINSON, M.A. 8vo, 7s. 6d.

Falkiner.—**STUDIES IN IRISH HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY**. Mainly of the Eighteenth Century. By C. LITTON FALKINER. 8vo, 12s. 6d. net.

Fitzgibbon.—**ARTS UNDER ARMS: an University Man in Khaki**. By MAURICE FITZGIBBON, B.A., Trinity College, Dublin University, late Trooper and Sergeant-Major 45th Company (Irish Hunt Contingent) Imperial Yeomanry. With 6 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt top, 5s. net.

Fitzmaurice.—**CHARLES WILLIAM FERDINAND, Duke of Brunswick**; an Historical Study. By Lord EDMOND FITZMAURICE. With Map and 2 Portraits. 8vo, 6s. net.

Froude (JAMES A.).

THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND, from the Fall of Wolsey to the Defeat of the Spanish Armada. 12 vols. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d. each.

THE DIVORCE OF CATHERINE OF ARAGON. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Froude (JAMES A.)—continued.

THE SPANISH STORY OF THE ARMADA, and other Essays. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE ENGLISH IN IRELAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY. 3 vols. Crown 8vo, 10s. 6d.

ENGLISH SEAMEN IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

Cabinet Edition. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Illustrated Edition. With 5 Photogravure Plates and 16 other Illustrations. Large Crown 8vo, gilt top, 6s. net.

'Silver Library' Edition. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE COUNCIL OF TRENT. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

SHORT STUDIES ON GREAT SUBJECTS. 4 vols. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d. each.

CÆSAR: a Sketch. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.

SELECTIONS FROM THE WRITINGS OF JAMES ANTHONY FROUDE. Edited by P. S. ALLEN, M.A. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Fuller.—**EGYPT AND THE HINTERLAND**. By FREDERIC W. FULLER. With Frontispiece and Map of Egypt and the Sudan. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.

Gardiner (SAMUEL RAWSON, D.C.L., LL.D.).

HISTORY OF ENGLAND, from the Accession of James I. to the Outbreak of the Civil War, 1603-1642. 10 vols. Crown 8vo, 5s. net each.

A HISTORY OF THE GREAT CIVIL WAR, 1642-1649. 4 vols. Crown 8vo, 5s. net each.

A HISTORY OF THE COMMONWEALTH AND THE PROTECTORATE, 1649-1660. Vol. I. 1649-1651. With 14 Maps. 8vo, 21s. Vol. II. 1651-1654. With 7 Maps. 8vo, 21s. Vol. III. 1654-1656. With 6 Maps. 8vo, 21s.

THE STUDENT'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND. With 378 Illustrations. Cr. 8vo, gilt top, 12s.

Also in Three Volumes, price 4s. each.

History, Politics, Polity, Political Memoirs, etc.—continued.

Gardiner (SAMUEL RAWSON, D.C. LL.D.)—*continued.*

WHAT GUNPOWDER PLOT WAS.
With 8 Illustrations. Cr. 8vo, 5s.

CROMWELL'S PLACE IN HISTORY.
Founded on Six Lectures delivered in the University of Oxford. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

OLIVER CROMWELL. With Frontispiece. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

German Empire (The) of Today: Outlines of its Formation and Development. By 'VERITAS'. Crown 8vo, 6s. net.

Graham.—ROMAN AFRICA: an Outline of the History of the Roman Occupation of North Africa, based chiefly upon Inscriptions and Monumental Remains in that country. By ALEXANDER GRAHAM, F.S.A., F.R.I.B.A. With 30 reproductions of Original Drawings by the Author, and 2 Maps. 8vo, 16s. net.

Greville.—A JOURNAL OF THE REIGNS OF KING GEORGE IV., KING WILLIAM IV., AND QUEEN VICTORIA. By CHARLES C. F. GREVILLE, formerly Clerk of the Council. 8 vols. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. each.

Gross.—THE SOURCES AND LITERATURE OF ENGLISH HISTORY, from the Earliest Times to about 1485. By CHARLES GROSS, Ph.D. 8vo, 18s. net.

Hamilton.—HISTORICAL RECORD OF THE 14TH (KING'S) HUSSARS, from A.D. 1715 to A.D. 1900. By Colonel HENRY BLACKBURN HAMILTON, M.A., Christ Church, Oxford; late commanding the Regiment. With 15 Coloured Plates, 35 Portraits, etc., in Photogravure, and 10 Maps and Plans. Crown 4to, gilt edges, 42s. net.

Hill.—LIBERTY DOCUMENTS. With Contemporary Exposition and Critical Comments drawn from various Writers. Selected and Prepared by MABEL HILL. Edited with an Introduction by ALBERT BUSHNELL HART, Ph.D. Large Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.

HARVARD HISTORICAL STUDIES.

THE SUPPRESSION OF THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE TO THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, 1638-1870. By W. E. B. DU BOIS, Ph.D. 8vo, 7s. 6d.

THE CONTEST OVER THE RATIFICATION OF THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION IN MASSACHUSETTS. By S. B. HARDING, A.M. 8vo, 6s.

A CRITICAL STUDY OF NULLIFICATION IN SOUTH CAROLINA. By D. F. HOUSTON, A.M. 8vo, 6s.

NOMINATIONS FOR ELECTIVE OFFICE IN THE UNITED STATES. By FREDERICK W. DALLINGER, A.M. 8vo, 7s. 6d.

A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF BRITISH MUNICIPAL HISTORY, including Gilds and Parliamentary Representation. By CHARLES GROSS, Ph.D. 8vo, 12s.

THE LIBERTY AND FREE-SOIL PARTIES IN THE NORTH-WEST. By THEODORE C. SMITH, Ph.D. 8vo, 7s. 6d.

THE PROVINCIAL GOVERNOR IN THE ENGLISH COLONIES OF NORTH AMERICA. By EVARTS BOUTELL GREENE. 8vo, 7s. 6d.

THE COUNTY PALATINE OF DURHAM: a Study in Constitutional History. By GAILLARD THOMAS LAFFLEY, Ph.D. 8vo 10s. 6d.

Historic Towns.—Edited by E. A. FREEMAN, D.C.L., and Rev. WILLIAM HUNT, M.A. With Maps and Plans. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. each.

Bristol. By Rev. W. Hunt. Oxford. By Rev. C. W. Boase.

Carlisle. By Mandell Creighton, D.D. Winchester. By G. W. Kitchin, D.D.

Cinque Ports. By Montagu Burrows. York. By Rev. James Raine.

Colchester. By Rev. E. L. Cutts. New York. By Theodore Roosevelt.

Exeter. By E. A. Freeman.

London. By Rev. W. J. Loftie. Boston (U.S.). By Henry Cabot Lodge.

History, Politics, Polity, Political Memoirs, etc.—continued.

Hunter.—A HISTORY OF BRITISH INDIA. By Sir WILLIAM WILSON HUNTER, K.C.S.I., M.A., LL.D.

Vol. I.—Introductory to the Overthrow of the English in the Spice Archipelago, 1623. With 4 Maps. 8vo, 18s.

Vol. II.—To the Union of the Old and New Companies under the Earl of Godolphin's Award. 1708. 8vo, 16s.

Ingram.—A CRITICAL EXAMINATION OF IRISH HISTORY. From the Elizabethan Conquest to the Legislative Union of 1800. By T. DUNBAR INGRAM, LL.D. 2 vols. 8vo, 24s.

Joyce.—A SHORT HISTORY OF IRELAND, from the Earliest Times to 1603. By P. W. JOYCE, LL.D. Crown 8vo, 10s. 6d.

Kaye and Malleson.—HISTORY OF THE INDIAN MUTINY, 1857-1858. By Sir JOHN W. KAYE and Colonel G. B. MALLESON. With Analytical Index and Maps and Plans. 6 vols. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. each.

Kent.—THE ENGLISH RADICALS: an Historical Sketch. By C. B. ROYLANCE KENT. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.

Lang.—THE MYSTERY OF MARY STUART. By ANDREW LANG. With 6 Photogravure Plates (4 Portraits) and 15 other Illustrations. 8vo, 18s. net.

Laurie.—HISTORICAL SURVEY OF PRE-CHRISTIAN EDUCATION. By S. S. LAURIE, A.M., LL.D. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.

Lecky.—(The Rt. Hon. WILLIAM E. H.) HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Library Edition. 8 vols. 8vo. Vols. I. and II., 1700-1760, 36s. Vols. III. and IV., 1760-1784, 36s. Vols. V. and VI., 1784-1793, 36s. Vols. VII. and VIII., 1793-1800, 36s.

Cabinet Edition. ENGLAND. 7 vols. Crown 8vo, 5s. net each. IRELAND. 5 vols. Crown 8vo, 5s. net each.

HISTORY OF EUROPEAN MORALS FROM AUGUSTUS TO CHARLEMAGNE. 2 vols. Crown 8vo, 10s. net.

Lecky.—(The Rt. Hon. WILLIAM E. H.) —continued.

HISTORY OF THE RISE AND INFLUENCE OF THE SPIRIT OF RATIONALISM IN EUROPE. 2 vols. Crown 8vo, 10s. net.

DEMOCRACY AND LIBERTY.

Library Edition. 2 vols. 8vo, 36s.

Cabinet Edition. 2 vols. Cr. 8vo, 10s. net.

Lowell.—GOVERNMENTS AND PARTIES IN CONTINENTAL EUROPE. By A. LAWRENCE LOWELL. 2 vols. 8vo, 21s.

Lynch.—THE WAR OF THE CIVILISATIONS: BEING A RECORD OF 'A FOREIGN DEVIL'S' EXPERIENCES WITH THE ALLIES IN CHINA. By GEORGE LYNCH, Special Correspondent of the *Sphere*, etc. With Portrait and 21 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 6s. net.

Lytton.—THE HISTORY OF LORD LYTTON'S INDIAN ADMINISTRATION, FROM 1876-1880. Compiled from Letters and Official Papers. Edited by Lady BETTY BALFOUR. With Portrait and Map. 8vo, 18s.

Macaulay (LORD).

THE LIFE AND WORKS OF LORD MACAULAY.

'*Edinburgh*' Edition. 10 vols. 8vo, 6s. each.

Vols. I.-IV. HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

Vols. V.-VII. ESSAYS, BIOGRAPHIES, INDIAN PENAL CODE, CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNIGHT'S 'QUARTERLY MAGAZINE'.

Vol. VIII. SPEECHES, LAYS OF ANCIENT ROME, MISCELLANEOUS POEMS.

Vols. IX. and X. THE LIFE AND LETTERS OF LORD MACAULAY. By Sir G. O. TREVELYAN, Bart.

History, Politics, Polity, Political Memoirs, etc.—continued.**Macaulay (LORD)—continued.****THE WORKS.**

'*Albany*' *Edition*. With 12 Portraits.
12 vols. Large Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.
each.

Vols. I.-VI. HISTORY OF ENGLAND, FROM THE ACCESSION OF JAMES THE SECOND.

Vols. VII.-X. ESSAYS AND BIOGRAPHIES.

Vols. XI.-XII. SPEECHES, LAYS OF ANCIENT ROME, ETC., AND INDEX.

Cabinet Edition. 16 vols. Post 8vo, £4 16s.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF JAMES THE SECOND.

Popular Edition. 2 vols. Cr. 8vo, 5s.

Student's Edition. 2 vols. Cr. 8vo, 12s.

People's Edition. 4 vols. Cr. 8vo, 16s.

'*Albany*' *Edition*. With 6 Portraits.
6 vols. Large Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.
each.

Cabinet Edition. 8 vols. Post 8vo, 48s.

'*Edinburgh*' *Edition*. 4 vols. 8vo, 6s. each.

CRITICAL AND HISTORICAL ESSAYS, WITH LAYS OF ANCIENT ROME, ETC., in 1 volume.

Popular Edition. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

Authorised Edition. Cr. 8vo, 2s. 6d.

'*Silver Library*' *Edition*. With
Portrait and 4 Illustrations to the
'Lays'. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

CRITICAL AND HISTORICAL ESSAYS.

Student's Edition. 1 vol. Cr. 8vo, 6s.

People's Edition. 2 vols. Crown 8vo, 8s.

'*Trevelyan*' *Edition*. 2 vols. Crown 8vo, 9s.

Cabinet Edition. 4 vols. Post 8vo, 24s.

'*Edinburgh*' *Edition*. 3 vols. 8vo, 6s. each.

Macaulay (LORD)—continued.

ESSAYS, which may be had separately,
sewed, 6d. each; cloth, 1s. each.
Addison and Walpole. Frederic the Great.
Croker's Boswell's. Ranke and Gladstone.
Johnson. Lord Bacon.
Hallam's Constitutional History. Lord Clive.
Warren Hastings. Lord Byron, and The
The Earl of Chatham. Comic Dramatists
(Two Essays). of the Restoration.

MISCELLANEOUS WRITINGS.

People's Edition. 1 vol. Crown 8vo, 4s. 6d.

MISCELLANEOUS WRITINGS, SPEECHES, AND POEMS.

Popular Edition. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

Cabinet Edition. 4 vols. Post 8vo, 24s.

SELECTIONS FROM THE WRITINGS OF LORD MACAULAY. Edited, with Occasional Notes, by the Right Hon. Sir G. O. TREVELYAN, Bart.
Crown 8vo, 6s.**Mackinnon (JAMES, Ph.D.).****THE HISTORY OF EDWARD THE THIRD.** 8vo, 18s.**THE GROWTH AND DECLINE OF THE FRENCH MONARCHY.** 8vo, 21s. net.**May.—THE CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND** since the Accession of George III. 1760-1870. By Sir THOMAS ERSKINE MAY, K.C.B. (Lord Farnborough). 3 vols. Cr. 8vo, 18s.**Merivale (CHARLES, D.D.).****HISTORY OF THE ROMANS UNDER THE EMPIRE.** 8 vols. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. each.**THE FALL OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC:** a Short History of the Last Century of the Commonwealth. 12mo, 7s. 6d.**GENERAL HISTORY OF ROME,** from the Foundation of the City to the Fall of Augustulus, B.C. 753-A.D. 476. With 5 Maps. Cr. 8vo, 7s. 6d.**Montague.—THE ELEMENTS OF ENGLISH CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY.** By F. C. MONTAGUE, M.A. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.**Nash.—THE GREAT FAMINE AND ITS CAUSES.** By VAUGHAN NASH. With 8 Illustrations from Photographs by the Author, and a Map of India showing the Famine Area. Cr. 8vo, 6s.

History, Politics, Polity, Political Memoirs, etc.—continued.

- Owens College Essays.**—Edited by T. F. TOUT, M.A., Professor of History in the Owens College, Victoria University, and JAMES TAIT, M.A., Assistant Lecturer in History. With 4 Maps. 8vo, 12s. 6d. net.
- Powell and Trevelyan.**—THE PEASANTS' RISING AND THE LOLLARDS: a Collection of Unpublished Documents. Edited by EDGAR POWELL and G. M. TREVELYAN. 8vo, 6s. net.
- Randolph.**—THE LAW AND POLICY OF ANNEXATION, with Special Reference to the Philippines; together with Observations on the Status of Cuba. By CARMAN F. RANDOLPH. 8vo, 9s. net.
- Rankin (REGINALD).**
THE MARQUIS D'ARGENSON AND RICHARD THE SECOND. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.
A SUBALTERN'S LETTERS TO HIS WIFE. (The Boer War.) Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.
- Ransome.**—THE RISE OF CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND. By CYRIL RANSOME, M.A. Crown 8vo, 6s.
- Seeböhm (FREDERIC, LL.D., F.S.A.).**
THE ENGLISH VILLAGE COMMUNITY. With 13 Maps and Plates. 8vo, 16s.
TRIBAL CUSTOM IN ANGLO-SAXON LAW: being an Essay supplemental to (1) 'The English Village Community,' (2) 'The Tribal System in Wales'. 8vo, 16s.
- Seton-Karr.**—THE CALL TO ARMS, 1900-1901; or a Review of the Imperial Yeomanry Movement, and some subjects connected therewith. By H. SETON-KARR, M.P. With a Frontispiece by R. CATON WOODVILLE. Crown 8vo.
- Shaw.**—A HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH CHURCH DURING THE CIVIL WARS AND UNDER THE COMMONWEALTH, 1640-1660. By WM. A. SHAW, Litt.D. 2 vols. 8vo, 36s.
- Sheppard.**—THE OLD ROYAL PALACE OF WHITEHALL. By EDGAR SHEPPARD, D.D., Sub-Dean of H.M. Chapels Royal, Sub-Almoner to the King. With 6 Photogravure Plates and 33 other Illustrations. Medium 8vo, 21s. net.
- Smith.**—CARTHAGE AND THE CARTHAGINIANS. By R. BOSWORTH SMITH, M.A. With Maps, Plans, etc. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.
- Stephens.**—A HISTORY OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION. By H. MORSE STEPHENS. 8vo. Vols. I. and II. 18s. each.
- Sternberg.**—MY EXPERIENCES OF THE BOER WAR. By ADALBERT COUNT STERNBERG. With Preface by Lieut.-Col. G. F. R. HENDERSON. Cr. 8vo, 5s. net.
- Stubbs.**—HISTORY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF DUBLIN. By J. W. STUBBS. 8vo, 12s. 6d.
- Sutherland.**—THE HISTORY OF AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND, from 1606-1900. By ALEXANDER SUTHERLAND, M.A., and GEORGE SUTHERLAND, M.A. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.
- Taylor.**—A STUDENT'S MANUAL OF THE HISTORY OF INDIA. By Colonel MEADOWS TAYLOR, C.S.I., etc. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.
- Thomson.**—CHINA AND THE POWERS: a Narrative of the Outbreak of 1900. By H. C. THOMSON. With 2 Maps and 29 Illustrations. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.
- Todd.**—PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT IN THE BRITISH COLONIES. By ALPHEUS TODD, LL.D. 8vo, 30s. net.
- Trevelyan.**—THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION. Part I. 1766-1776. By Sir G. O. TREVELYAN, Bart. 8vo, 16s.
- Trevelyan.**—ENGLAND IN THE AGE OF WYCLIFFE. By GEORGE MACAULAY TREVELYAN. 8vo, 15s.
- Wakeman and Hassall.**—ESSAYS INTRODUCTORY TO THE STUDY OF ENGLISH CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY. Edited by HENRY OFFLEY WAKEMAN, M.A., and ARTHUR HASSALL, M.A. Crown 8vo, 6s.
- Walpole.**—HISTORY OF ENGLAND FROM THE CONCLUSION OF THE GREAT WAR IN 1815 TO 1858. By Sir SPENCER WALPOLE, K.C.B. 6 vols. Crown 8vo, 6s. each.
- Wylie (JAMES HAMILTON, M.A.).**
HISTORY OF ENGLAND UNDER HENRY IV. 4 vols. Crown 8vo. Vol. I., 1399-1404, 10s. 6d. Vol. II., 1405-1406, 15s. (*out of print*). Vol. III., 1407-1411, 15s. Vol. IV., 1411-1413, 21s.
THE COUNCIL OF CONSTANCE TO THE DEATH OF JOHN HUS. Cr. 8vo, 6s. net.

Biography, Personal Memoirs, etc.

- Bacon.**—THE LETTERS AND LIFE OF FRANCIS BACON, INCLUDING ALL HIS OCCASIONAL WORKS. Edited by JAMES SPEDDING. 7 vols. 8vo, £4 4s.
- Bagehot.**—BIOGRAPHICAL STUDIES. By WALTER BAGEHOT. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.
- Carlyle.**—THOMAS CARLYLE: A History of his Life. By JAMES ANTHONY FROUDE. Crown 8vo. 1795-1835. 2 vols. 7s. 1834-1881. 2 vols. 7s.
- Crozier.**—MY INNER LIFE: being a Chapter in Personal Evolution and Autobiography. By JOHN BEATTIE CROZIER, LL.D. 8vo, 14s.
- Dante.**—THE LIFE AND WORKS OF DANTE ALLIGHIERI: being an Introduction to the Study of the 'Divina Commedia'. By the Rev. J. F. HOGAN, D.D. With Portrait. 8vo, 12s. 6d.
- Danton.**—LIFE OF DANTON. By A. H. BEESLY. With Portraits. Cr. 8vo, 6s.
- De Bode.**—THE BARONESS DE BODE, 1775-1803. By WILLIAM S. CHILDE-PEMBERTON. With 4 Photogravure Portraits and other Illustrations. 8vo, gilt top, 12s. 6d. net.
- Duncan.**—ADMIRAL DUNCAN. By THE EARL OF CAMPERDOWN. With 3 Portraits. 8vo, 16s.
- Erasmus.**
LIFE AND LETTERS OF ERASMUS. By JAMES ANTHONY FROUDE. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.
THE EPISTLES OF ERASMUS, from his earliest Letters to his Fifty-first Year, arranged in Order of Time. English Translations, with a Commentary. By FRANCIS MORGAN NICHOLS. 8vo, 18s. net.
- Faraday.**—FARADAY AS A DISCOVERER. By JOHN TYNDALL. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.
- Fénelon:** his Friends and his Enemies, 1651-1715. By E. K. SANDERS. With Portrait. 8vo, 10s. 6d.
- Foreign Courts AND FOREIGN HOMES.** By A. M. F. Crown 8vo, 6s.
- Fox.**—THE EARLY HISTORY OF CHARLES JAMES FOX. By the Right Hon. Sir G. O. TREVELYAN, Bart. *Library Edition.* 8vo, 18s. *Cheap Edition.* Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.
- Granville.**—SOME RECORDS OF THE LATER LIFE OF HARRIET, COUNTESS GRANVILLE. By her Grand-daughter, the Hon. Mrs. OLD-FIELD. With 17 Portraits. 8vo, gilt top, 16s. net.
- Grey.**—MEMOIR OF SIR GEORGE GREY, BART., G.C.B., 1799-1882. By MANDELL CREIGHTON, D.D., late Lord Bishop of London. With 3 Portraits. Crown 8vo, 6s. net.
- Hamilton.**—LIFE OF SIR WILLIAM HAMILTON. By R. P. GRAVES. 8vo, 3 vols. 15s. each. ADDENDUM. 8vo, 6d. sewed.
- Harrow School Register (The),** 1801-1900. Second Edition, 1901. Edited by M. G. DAULISH, Barrister-at-Law. 8vo, 15s. net.
- Havelock.**—MEMOIRS OF SIR HENRY HAVELOCK, K.C.B. By JOHN CLARK MARSHMAN. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.
- Haweis.**—MY MUSICAL LIFE. By the Rev. H. R. HAWEIS. With Portrait of Richard Wagner and 3 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 6s. net.
- Hiley.**—MEMORIES OF HALF A CENTURY. By the Rev. R. W. HILEY, D.D. With Portrait. 8vo, 15s.
- Holroyd (MARIA JOSEPHA).**
THE GIRLHOOD OF MARIA JOSEPHA HOLROYD (Lady Stanley of Alderley). Recorded in Letters of a Hundred Years Ago, from 1776-1796. Edited by J. H. ADEANE. With 6 Portraits. 8vo, 18s.
THE EARLY MARRIED LIFE OF MARIA JOSEPHA, LADY STANLEY OF ALDERLEY, FROM 1796. Edited by J. H. ADEANE. With 10 Portraits, etc. 8vo, 18s.

Biography, Personal Memoirs, etc.—continued.

- Hunter.**—THE LIFE OF SIR WILLIAM WILSON HUNTER, K.C.S.I., M.A., LL.D. Author of 'A History of British India,' etc. By FRANCIS HENRY SKRINE, F.S.S. With 6 Portraits (2 Photogravures) and 4 other Illustrations. 8vo, 16s. net.
- Jackson.**—STONEWALL JACKSON AND THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR. By Lieut.-Col. G. F. R. HENDERSON. With 2 Portraits and 33 Maps and Plans. 2 vols. Crown 8vo, 16s. net.
- Leslie.**—THE LIFE AND CAMPAIGNS OF ALEXANDER LESLIE, FIRST EARL OF LEVEN. By CHARLES SANFORD TERRY, M.A. With Maps and Plans. 8vo, 16s.
- Luther.**—LIFE OF LUTHER. By JULIUS KÖSTLIN. With 62 Illustrations and 4 Facsimiles of MSS. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.
- Macaulay.**—THE LIFE AND LETTERS OF LORD MACAULAY. By the Right Hon. Sir G. O. TREVELYAN, Bart.
Popular Edition. 1 vol. Cr. 8vo, 2s. 6d.
Student's Edition. 1 vol. Cr. 8vo, 6s.
Cabinet Edition. 2 vols. Post 8vo, 12s.
'Edinburgh' Edition. 2 vols. 8vo, 6s. each.
Library Edition. 2 vols. 8vo, 36s.
- Martineau.**—JAMES MARTINEAU. A Biography and Study. By A. W. JACKSON, A.M., of Concord, Massachusetts. With 2 Portraits. 8vo, 12s. 6d.
- Max Müller (F.)**
MY AUTOBIOGRAPHY: a Fragment. With 6 Portraits. 8vo, 12s. 6d.
AULD LANG SYNE. Second Series. 8vo, 10s. 6d.
CHIPS FROM A GERMAN WORKSHOP. Vol. II. Biographical Essays. Crown 8vo, 5s.
- Meade.**—GENERAL SIR RICHARD MEADE AND THE FEUDATORY STATES OF CENTRAL AND SOUTH-EAST INDIA. By THOMAS HENRY THORNTON. With Portrait, Map and Illustrations. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.
- Morris.**—THE LIFE OF WILLIAM MORRIS. By J. W. MACKAIL. With 2 Portraits and 8 other Illustrations by E. H. New, etc. 2 vols. Large Crown 8vo, 10s. net.
- On the Banks of the Seine.**—By A. M. F., Authoress of 'Foreign Courts and Foreign Homes'. Crown 8vo, 6s.
- Paget.**—MEMOIRS AND LETTERS OF SIR JAMES PAGET. Edited by STEPHEN PAGET, one of his sons. With 6 Portraits (3 Photogravures) and 4 other Illustrations. 8vo, 12s. 6d. net.
- Pearson.**—CHARLES HENRY PEARSON, Author of 'National Life and Character'. Memorials by Himself, his Wife and his Friends. Edited by WILLIAM STEBBING. With a Portrait. 8vo, 14s.
- Place.**—THE LIFE OF FRANCIS PLACE, 1771-1854. By GRAHAM WALLAS, M.A. With 2 Portraits. 8vo, 12s.
- Powys.**—PASSAGES FROM THE DIARIES OF MRS. PHILIP LYBBE POWYS, OF HARDWICK HOUSE, OXON. 1756-1808. Edited by EMILY J. CLIMENSON. 8vo, gilt top, 16s.
- Rāmakrishna**: his Life and Sayings. By the Right Hon. F. MAX MÜLLER. Crown 8vo, 5s.
- Rich.**—MARY RICH, COUNTESS OF WARWICK (1625-1678): Her Family and Friends. By C. FELL SMITH. With 7 Photogravure Portraits and 9 other Illustrations. 8vo, gilt top, 18s. net.
- Romanes.**—THE LIFE AND LETTERS OF GEORGE JOHN ROMANES, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S. Written and Edited by his WIFE. With Portrait and 2 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.
- Russell.**—SWALLOWFIELD AND ITS OWNERS. By CONSTANCE, Lady RUSSELL of Swallowfield Park. With 15 Photogravure Portraits and 36 other Illustrations. 4to, gilt edges, 42s. net.

Biography, Personal Memoirs, etc.—continued.

Seebohm.—THE OXFORD REFORMERS—JOHN COLET, ERASMUS, AND THOMAS MORE: a History of their Fellow-Work. By FREDERIC SEEBOHM. 8vo, 14s.

Shakespeare.—OUTLINES OF THE LIFE OF SHAKESPEARE. By J. O. HALLIWELL-PHILLIPPS. With Illustrations and Facsimiles. 2 vols. Royal 8vo, 21s.

Tales of my Father.—By A. M. F. Author of 'Foreign Courts and Foreign Homes,' and 'On the Banks of the Seine'. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Tallentyre.—THE WOMEN OF THE SALONS, and other French Portraits. By S. G. TALLENTYRE. With 11 Photogravure Portraits. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.

Victoria, Queen, 1819-1901. By RICHARD R. HOLMES, M.V.O., F.S.A. Librarian to the Queen. With Photogravure Portrait. Cr. 8vo, gilt top, 5s. net.

Walpole.—SOME UNPUBLISHED LETTERS OF HORACE WALPOLE. Edited by Sir SPENCER WALPOLE, K.C.B. With 2 Portraits. Cr. 8vo, 4s. 6d. net.

Wellington.—LIFE OF THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON. By the Rev. G. R. GLEIG, M.A. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Travel and Adventure, the Colonies, etc.

Arnold.—SEAS AND LANDS. By Sir EDWIN ARNOLD. With 71 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Baker (Sir S. W.).

EIGHT YEARS IN CEYLON. With 6 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE RIFLE AND THE HOUND IN CEYLON. With 6 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Ball (JOHN).

THE ALPINE GUIDE. Reconstructed and Revised on behalf of the Alpine Club by W. A. B. COOLIDGE.

Vol. I., THE WESTERN ALPS: the Alpine Region, South of the Rhone Valley, from the Col de Tenda to the Simplon Pass. With 9 New and Revised Maps. Crown 8vo, 12s. net.

HINTS AND NOTES, PRACTICAL AND SCIENTIFIC, FOR TRAVELLERS IN THE ALPS: being a revision of the General Introduction to the 'Alpine Guide'. Crown 8vo, 3s. net.

Bent.—THE RUINED CITIES OF MASHONALAND: being a Record of Excavation and Exploration in 1891. By J. THEODORE BENT. With 117 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Brassey (THE LATE LADY).

A VOYAGE IN THE 'SUNBEAM'; OUR HOME ON THE OCEAN FOR ELEVEN MONTHS.

Cabinet Edition. With Map and 66 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 7s. 6d.

'*Silver Library*' *Edition.* With 66 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Popular Edition. With 60 Illustrations. 4to, 6d. sewed, 1s. cloth.

School Edition. With 37 Illustrations. Fcp., 2s. cloth, or 3s. white parchment.

SUNSHINE AND STORM IN THE EAST.

Popular Edition. With 103 Illustrations. 4to, 6d. sewed, 1s. cloth.

IN THE TRADES, THE TROPICS, AND THE 'ROARING FORTIES'.

Cabinet Edition. With Map and 220 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 7s. 6d.

Crawford.—SOUTH AMERICAN SKETCHES. By ROBERT CRAWFORD, M.A. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Fountain.—THE GREAT DESERTS AND FORESTS OF NORTH AMERICA. By PAUL FOUNTAIN. With a Preface by W. H. HUDSON, Author of 'The Naturalist in La Plata,' etc. 8vo, 9s. 6d. net.

Travel and Adventure, the Colonies, etc.—continued.

Froude (JAMES A.).

OCEANA: or England and her Colonies. With 9 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE ENGLISH IN THE WEST INDIES: or, the Bow of Ulysses. With 9 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 2s. boards, 2s. 6d. cloth.

Grove.—**SEVENTY-ONE DAYS' CAMPING IN MOROCCO.** By Lady GROVE. With Photogravure Portrait and 32 Illustrations from Photographs. 8vo, 7s. 6d. net.

Haggard.—**A WINTER PILGRIMAGE:** Being an Account of Travels through Palestine, Italy and the Island of Cyprus, undertaken in the year 1900. By H. RIDER HAGGARD. With 31 Illustrations from Photographs. Crown 8vo, gilt top, 12s. 6d. net.

Heathcote.—**ST. KILDA.** By NORMAN HEATHCOTE. With 80 Illustrations from Sketches and Photographs of the People, Scenery and Birds, by the Author. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.

Howitt.—**VISITS TO REMARKABLE PLACES.** Old Halls, Battlefields, Scenes, illustrative of Striking Passages in English History and Poetry. By WILLIAM HOWITT. With 80 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Knight (E. F.).

WITH THE ROYAL TOUR: a Narrative of the Recent Tour of the Duke and Duchess of Cornwall and York through Greater Britain. With 16 Illustrations and a Map. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

THE CRUISE OF THE 'ALERTE'; the Narrative of a search for Treasure on the Desert Island of Trinidad. With 2 Maps and 23 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

WHERE THREE EMPIRES MEET: a Narrative of Recent Travel in Kashmir, Western Tibet, Baltistan, Ladak, Gilgit, and the adjoining Countries. With a Map and 54 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE 'FALCON' ON THE BALTIC: a Voyage from London to Copenhagen in a Three-Tonner. With 10 Full-page Illustrations. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Lees.—**PEAKS AND PINES:** another Norway Book. By J. A. LEES. With 63 Illustrations and Photographs. Cr. 8vo, 6s.

Lees and Clutterbuck.—**B.C. 1887: A RAMBLE IN BRITISH COLUMBIA.** By J. A. LEES and W. J. CLUTTERBUCK. With Map and 75 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Lynch.—**ARMENIA:** Travels and Studies. By H. F. B. LYNCH. With 197 Illustrations (some in tints) reproduced from Photographs and Sketches by the Author, 16 Maps and Plans, a Bibliography, and a Map of Armenia and adjacent countries. 2 vols. Medium 8vo, gilt top, 42s. net.

Nansen.—**THE FIRST CROSSING OF GREENLAND.** By FRIDTJOF NANSEN. With 143 Illustrations and a Map. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Rice.—**OCCASIONAL ESSAYS ON NATIVE SOUTH INDIAN LIFE.** By STANLEY P. RICE, Indian Civil Service. 8vo, 10s. 6d.

Smith.—**CLIMBING IN THE BRITISH ISLES.** By W. P. HASKETT SMITH. With Illustrations and numerous Plans.

Part I. ENGLAND. 16mo, 3s. net.

Part II. WALES AND IRELAND. 16mo, 3s. net.

Spender.—**TWO WINTERS IN NORWAY:** being an Account of Two Holidays spent on Snow-shoes and in Sleigh Driving, and including an Expedition to the Lapps. By A. EDMUND SPENDER. With 40 Illustrations from Photographs. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.

Stephen.—**THE PLAYGROUND OF EUROPE (The Alps).** By LESLIE STEPHEN. With 4 Illustrations. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Three in Norway.—By Two of them. With a Map and 59 Illustrations. Cr. 8vo, 2s. boards, 2s. 6d. cloth.

Tyndall (JOHN).

THE GLACIERS OF THE ALPS: With 61 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 6s. 6d. net.

HOURS OF EXERCISE IN THE ALPS. With 7 Illustrations. Cr. 8vo, 6s. 6d. net.

Sport and Pastime. THE BADMINTON LIBRARY.

Edited by HIS GRACE THE (EIGHTH) DUKE OF BEAUFORT, K.G., and
A. E. T. WATSON.

- ARCHERY.** By C. J. LONGMAN and Col. H. WALROND. With Contributions by Miss LEGH, Viscount DILLON, etc. With 2 Maps, 23 Plates, and 172 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- ATHLETICS.** By MONTAGUE SHEARMAN. With Chapters on Athletics at School by W. BEACHER THOMAS; Athletic Sports in America by C. H. SHERRILL; a Contribution on Paper-chasing by W. RYE, and an Introduction by Sir RICHARD WEBSTER (Lord ALVERSTONE). With 12 Plates and 37 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- BIG GAME SHOOTING.** By CLIVE PHILLIPPS-WOLLEY.
Vol. I. AFRICA AND AMERICA. With Contributions by Sir SAMUEL W. BAKER, W. C. OSWELL, F. C. SELOUS, etc. With 20 Plates and 57 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- Vol. II. EUROPE, ASIA, AND THE ARCTIC REGIONS. With Contributions by Lieut.-Colonel R. HEBER PERCY, Major ALGERNON C. HEBER PERCY, etc. With 17 Plates and 56 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- BILLIARDS.** By Major W. BROADFOOT, R.E. With Contributions by A. H. BOYD, SYDENHAM DIXON, W. J. FORD, etc. With 11 Plates, 19 Illustrations in the Text, and numerous Diagrams. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- COURSING AND FALCONRY.** By HARDING COX, CHARLES RICHARDSON, and the Hon. GERALD LASCELLES. With 20 Plates and 55 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- CRICKET.** By A. G. STEEL and the Hon. R. H. LYTTELTON. With Contributions by ANDREW LANG, W. G. GRACE, F. GALE, etc. With 13 Plates and 52 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- CYCLING.** By the EARL OF ALBEMARLE and G. LACY HILLIER. With 19 Plates and 44 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- DANCING.** By Mrs. LILLY GROVE. With contributions by Miss MIDDLETON, The Hon. Mrs. ARMYTAGE, etc. With Musical Examples, and 38 Full-page Plates and 93 Illustrations in the Text. Cr. 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- DRIVING.** By His Grace the (Eighth) DUKE OF BEAUFORT, K.G. With Contributions by A. E. T. WATSON, THE EARL OF ONSLOW, etc. With 12 Plates and 54 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- FENCING, BOXING AND WRESTLING.** By WALTER H. POLLOCK, F. C. GROVE, C. PREVOST, E. B. MITCHELL, and WALTER ARMSTRONG. With 18 Plates and 24 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- FISHING.** By H. CHOLMONDELEY-PENNELL.
Vol. I.—SALMON AND TROUT. With Contributions by H. R. FRANCIS, Major JOHN P. TRAHERNE, etc. With 9 Plates and numerous Illustrations of Tackle, etc. Crown 8vo, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- Vol. II.—PIKE AND OTHER COARSE FISH. With Contributions by the MARQUIS OF EXETER, WILLIAM SENIOR, G. CHRISTOPHER DAVIS, etc. With 7 Plates and numerous Illustrations of Tackle, etc. Cr. 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- FOOTBALL.—HISTORY,** by MONTAGUE SHEARMAN; **THE ASSOCIATION GAME,** by W. J. OAKLEY and G. O. SMITH; **THE RUGBY UNION GAME,** by FRANK MITCHELL. With other Contributions by R. E. MACNAGHTEN, M. C. KEMP, J. E. VINCENT, WALTER CAMP and A. SUTHERLAND. With 19 Plates and 35 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.
- GOLF.** By HORACE G. HUTCHINSON. With Contributions by the Rt. Hon. A. J. BALFOUR, M.P., Sir WALTER SIMPSON, Bart., ANDREW LANG, etc. With 34 Plates and 56 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

Sport and Pastime—continued.**THE BADMINTON LIBRARY—continued.**

Edited by HIS GRACE THE (EIGHTH) DUKE OF BEAUFORT, K.G., and
A. E. T. WATSON.

HUNTING. By His Grace the (Eighth)

DUKE OF BEAUFORT, K.G., and MOWBRAY MORRIS. With Contributions by the EARL OF SUFFOLK and BERKSHIRE, Rev. E. W. L. DAVIES, G. H. LONGMAN, etc. With 5 Plates and 54 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

MOTORS AND MOTOR-DRIVING. By

ALFRED C. HARMSWORTH, the MARQUIS DE CHASSELOUP-LAUBAT, the Hon. JOHN SCOTT-MONTAGU, R. J. MECREDY, the Hon. C. S. ROLLS, Sir DAVID SALOMONS, Bart., etc. With 13 Plates and 136 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 9s. net; half-bound, 12s. net. A Cloth Box for use when Motoring, price 2s. net.

MOUNTAINEERING. By C. T. DENT.

With Contributions by the Right Hon. J. BRYCE, M.P., Sir MARTIN CONWAY, D. W. FRESHFIELD, C. E. MATTHEWS, etc. With 13 Plates and 91 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

POETRY OF SPORT (THE). Selected

by HEADLEY PEEK. With a Chapter on Classical Allusions to Sport by ANDREW LANG, and a Special Preface to the BADMINTON LIBRARY by A. E. T. WATSON. With 32 Plates and 74 Illustrations in the Text. Cr. 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

RACING AND STEEPLE-CHASING.

By the EARL OF SUFFOLK and BERKSHIRE, W. G. CRAVEN, the Hon. F. LAWLEY, ARTHUR COVENTRY, and A. E. T. WATSON. With Frontispiece and 56 Illustrations in the Text. Cr. 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

RIDING AND POLO. By Captain

ROBERT WEIR, J. MORAY BROWN, T. F. DALE, the late DUKE OF BEAUFORT, the EARL OF SUFFOLK and BERKSHIRE, etc. With 18 Plates and 41 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

ROWING. By R. P. P. ROWE and C. M.

PITMAN. With Chapters on Steering by C. P. SEROCOLD and F. C. BEGG; Metropolitan Rowing by S. LE BLANC SMITH; and on PUNTING by P. W. SQUIRE. With 75 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

SEA FISHING. By JOHN BICKERDYKE,

Sir H. W. GORE-BOOTH, ALFRED C. HARMSWORTH, and W. SENIOR. With 22 Full-page Plates and 175 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

SHOOTING.**Vol. I.—FIELD AND COVERT.** By LORD

WALSINGHAM and Sir RALPH PAYNE-GALLWEY, Bart. With Contributions by the Hon. GERALD LASCELLES and A. J. STUART-WORTLEY. With 11 Plates and 95 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

Vol. II.—MOOR AND MARSH. By

LORD WALSINGHAM and Sir RALPH PAYNE-GALLWEY, Bart. With Contributions by LORD LOVAT and LORD CHARLES LENNOX KERR. With 8 Plates and 57 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

SKATING, CURLING, TOBOGGANING.

By J. M. HEATHCOTE, C. G. TEBBUTT, T. MAXWELL WITHAM, Rev. JOHN KERR, ORMOND HAKE, HENRY A. BUCK, etc. With 12 Plates and 272 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

SWIMMING. By ARCHIBALD SINCLAIR

and WILLIAM HENRY, Hon. Secs. of the Life-Saving Society. With 13 Plates and 112 Illustrations in the Text. Cr. 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

TENNIS, LAWN TENNIS, RACKETS

AND FIVES. By J. M. and C. G. HEATHCOTE, E. O. PLEYDELL-BOUVERIE, and A. C. AINGER. With Contributions by the Hon. A. LYTELTON, W. C. MARSHALL, Miss L. DOD, etc. With 12 Plates and 67 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

YACHTING.**Vol. I.—CRUISING, CONSTRUCTION OF**

YACHTS, YACHT RACING RULES, FITTING-OUT, etc. By Sir EDWARD SULLIVAN, Bart., the EARL OF PEMBROKE, LORD BRASSEY, K.C.B., C. E. SETH-SMITH, C.B., G. L. WATSON, R. T. PRITCHETT, E. F. KNIGHT, etc. With 21 Plates and 93 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

Vol. II.—YACHT CLUBS, YACHTING IN

AMERICA and the COLONIES, YACHT RACING, etc. By R. T. PRITCHETT, the MARQUIS OF DUFFERIN and AVA, K.P., the EARL OF ONSLOW, JAMES MCFERRAN, etc. With 35 Plates and 160 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, cloth, 6s. net; half-bound, with gilt top, 9s. net.

Sport and Pastime—continued.

FUR, FEATHER, AND FIN SERIES.

Edited by A. E. T. WATSON.

Crown 8vo, price 5s. each Volume, cloth.

*** The Volumes are also issued half-bound in Leather, with gilt top. The price can be had from all Booksellers.*

THE PARTRIDGE. NATURAL HISTORY, by the Rev. H. A. MACPHERSON; SHOOTING, by A. J. STUART-WORTLEY; COOKERY, by GEORGE SAINTSBURY. With 11 Illustrations and various Diagrams in the Text. Crown 8vo, 5s.

THE GROUSE. NATURAL HISTORY, by the Rev. H. A. MACPHERSON; SHOOTING, by A. J. STUART-WORTLEY; COOKERY, by GEORGE SAINTSBURY. With 13 Illustrations and various Diagrams in the Text. Crown 8vo, 5s.

THE PHEASANT. NATURAL HISTORY, by the Rev. H. A. MACPHERSON; SHOOTING, by A. J. STUART-WORTLEY; COOKERY, by ALEXANDER INNES SHAND. With 10 Illustrations and various Diagrams. Crown 8vo, 5s.

THE HARE. NATURAL HISTORY, by the Rev. H. A. MACPHERSON; SHOOTING, by the Hon. GERALD LASCELLES; COURSING, by CHARLES RICHARDSON; HUNTING, by J. S. GIBBONS and G. H. LONGMAN; COOKERY, by Col. KENNEY HERBERT. With 9 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 5s.

Alverstone and Alcock.—SURREY CRICKET: Its History and Associations. Edited by the Right Hon. LORD ALVERSTONE, L.C.J., President, and C. W. ALCOCK, Secretary, of the Surrey County Cricket Club. With 48 Illustrations. 8vo, 16s. net.

Bickerdyke.—DAYS OF MY LIFE ON WATER, FRESH AND SALT: and other papers. By JOHN BICKERDYKE. With Photo-Etching Frontispiece and 8 Full-page Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Blackburne.—MR. BLACKBURNES GAMES AT CHESS. Selected, Annotated and Arranged by Himself. Edited, with a Biographical Sketch and a brief History of Blindfold Chess, by P. ANDERSON GRAHAM. With Portrait of Mr. Blackburne. 8vo, 7s. 6d. net.

RED DEER. NATURAL HISTORY, by the Rev. H. A. MACPHERSON; DEER STALKING, by CAMERON OF LOCHIEL; STAG HUNTING, by Viscount EBRINGTON; COOKERY, by ALEXANDER INNES SHAND. With 10 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 5s.

THE SALMON. By the Hon. A. E. GATHORNE-HARDY. With Chapters on the Law of Salmon Fishing by CLAUD DOUGLAS PENNANT; COOKERY, by ALEXANDER INNES SHAND. With 8 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 5s.

THE TROUT. By the MARQUESS OF GRANBY. With Chapters on the Breeding of Trout by Col. H. CUSTANCE; and COOKERY, by ALEXANDER INNES SHAND. With 12 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 5s.

THE RABBIT. By JAMES EDMUND HARTING. COOKERY, by ALEXANDER INNES SHAND. With 10 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 5s.

PIKE AND PERCH. By WILLIAM SENIOR ('Redspinner,' Editor of the *Field*). With Chapters by JOHN BICKERDYKE and W. H. POPE. COOKERY, by ALEXANDER INNES SHAND. With 12 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 5s.

Cawthorne and Herod.—ROYAL ASCOT: its History and its Associations. By GEORGE JAMES CAWTHORNE and RICHARD S. HEROD. With 32 Plates and 106 Illustrations in the Text. Demy 4to, £1 11s. 6d. net.

Dead Shot (The): or, Sportsman's Complete Guide. Being a Treatise on the use of the Gun, with Rudimentary and Finishing Lessons in the Art of Shooting Game of all kinds. Also Game-driving, Wildfowl and Pigeon-Shooting, Dog-breaking, etc. By MARKSMAN. With numerous Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 10s. 6d.

Ellis.—CHESS SPARKS; or, Short and Bright Games of Chess. Collected and Arranged by J. H. ELLIS, M.A. 8vo, 4s. 6d.

Sport and Pastime—continued.

- Folkard.**—THE WILD-FOWLER: A Treatise on Fowling, Ancient and Modern, descriptive also of Decoys and Flight-ponds, Wild-fowl Shooting, Gunning-punts, Shooting-yachts, etc. Also Fowling in the Fens and in Foreign Countries, Rock-fowling, etc., etc. By H. C. FOLKARD. With 13 Engravings on Steel, and several Woodcuts. 8vo, 12s. 6d.
- Ford.**—MIDDLESEX COUNTY CRICKET CLUB, 1864-1899. Written and Compiled by W. J. FORD (at the request of the Committee of the County C.C.). With Frontispiece Portrait of Mr. V. E. Walker. 8vo, 10s. net.
- Ford.**—THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF ARCHERY. By HORACE FORD. New Edition, thoroughly Revised and Rewritten by W. BUTT, M.A. With a Preface by C. J. LONGMAN, M.A. 8vo, 14s.
- Francis.**—A BOOK ON ANGLING: or, Treatise on the Art of Fishing in every Branch; including full illustrated List of Salmon Flies. By FRANCIS FRANCIS. With Portrait and Coloured Plates. Crown 8vo, 15s.
- Fremantle.**—THE BOOK OF THE RIFLE. By the Hon. T. F. FREMANTLE, V.D., Major, 1st Bucks V.R.C. With 54 Plates and 107 Diagrams in the Text. 8vo, 12s. 6d. net.
- Gathorne-Hardy.**—AUTUMNS IN ARGYLESIRE WITH ROD AND GUN. By the Hon. A. E. GATHORNE-HARDY. With 8 Photogravure Illustrations by ARCHIBALD THORBURN. 8vo, 6s. net.
- Graham.**—COUNTRY PASTIMES FOR BOYS. By P. ANDERSON GRAHAM. With 252 Illustrations from Drawings and Photographs. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 3s. net.
- Hutchinson.**—THE BOOK OF GOLF AND GOLFERS. By HORACE G. HUTCHINSON. With Contributions by Miss AMY PASCOE, H. H. HILTON, J. H. TAYLOR, H. J. WHIGHAM and Messrs. SUTTON & SONS. With 71 Portraits from Photographs. Large Crown 8vo, gilt top, 7s. 6d. net.
- Lang.**—ANGLING SKETCHES. By ANDREW LANG. With 20 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.
- Lillie (ARTHUR).** CROQUET: its History, Rules and Secrets. With 4 Full-page Illustrations, 15 Illustrations in the Text, and 27 Diagrams. Crown 8vo, 6s.
- CROQUET UP TO DATE.** Containing the Ideas and Teachings of the Leading Players and Champions. With Contributions by Lieut.-Col. the Hon. H. NEEDHAM, C. D. LOCOCK, etc. With 19 Illustrations (15 Portraits) and numerous Diagrams. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.
- Locock.**—SIDE AND SCREW: being Notes on the Theory and Practice of the Game of Billiards. By C. D. LOCOCK. With Diagrams. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.
- Longman.**—CHESS OPENINGS. By FREDERICK W. LONGMAN. Fcp. 8vo, 2s. 6d.
- Mackenzie.**—NOTES FOR HUNTING MEN. By Captain CORTLANDT GORDON MACKENZIE. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d. net.
- Madden.**—THE DIARY OF MASTER WILLIAM SILENCE: a Study of Shakespeare and of Elizabethan Sport. By the Right Hon. D. H. MADDEN, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Dublin. 8vo, gilt top, 16s.
- Maskelyne.**—SHARPS AND FLATS: a Complete Revelation of the Secrets of Cheating at Games of Chance and Skill. By JOHN NEVIL MASKELYNE, of the Egyptian Hall. With 62 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 6s.
- Millais.**—THE WILD-FOWLER IN SCOTLAND. By JOHN GUILLE MILLAIS, F.Z.S., etc. With a Frontispiece in Photogravure by Sir J. E. MILLAIS, Bart., P.R.A., 8 Photogravure Plates, 2 Coloured Plates, and 50 Illustrations from the Author's Drawings and from Photographs. Royal 4to, gilt top, 30s. net.
- Modern Bridge.**—By 'Slam'. With a Reprint of the Laws of Bridge, as adopted by the Portland and Turf Clubs. 18mo, gilt edges, 3s. 6d. net.
- Park.**—THE GAME OF GOLF. By WILLIAM PARK, Jun., Champion Golfer, 1887-89. With 17 Plates and 26 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.

Sport and Pastime—continued.**Payne-Gallwey** (Sir RALPH, Bart.).

LETTERS TO YOUNG SHOOTERS
(First Series). On the choice and
Use of a Gun. With 41 Illustrations.
Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.

LETTERS TO YOUNG SHOOTERS
(Second Series). On the Production,
Preservation, and Killing of Game.
With Directions in Shooting Wood-
Pigeons and Breaking-in Retrievers.
With Portrait and 103 Illustrations.
Crown 8vo, 12s. 6d.

LETTERS TO YOUNG SHOOTERS
(Third Series). Comprising a Short
Natural History of the Wildfowl that
are Rare or Common to the British
Islands, with Complete Directions in
Shooting Wildfowl on the Coast and
Inland. With 200 Illustrations. Cr.
8vo, 18s.

Pole.—THE THEORY OF THE MOD-
ERN SCIENTIFIC GAME OF WHIST.
By WILLIAM POLE, F.R.S. Fcp. 8vo,
gilt edges, 2s. net.

Proctor.—HOW TO PLAY WHIST:
with the Laws and Etiquette of Whist.
By RICHARD A. PROCTOR. Crown 8vo,
gilt edges, 3s. net.

Ronalds.—THE FLY-FISHER'S EN-
TOMOLOGY. By ALFRED RONALDS.
With 20 Coloured Plates. 8vo, 14s.

Selous.—SPORT AND TRAVEL,
EAST AND WEST. By FREDERICK
COURTENAY SELOUS. With 18 Plates
and 35 Illustrations in the Text. Med-
ium 8vo, 12s. 6d. net.

Mental, Moral and Political Philosophy.*LOGIC, RHETORIC, PSYCHOLOGY, ETC.*

Abbott.—THE ELEMENTS OF LOGIC.
By T. K. ABBOTT, B.D. 12mo, 3s.

Aristotle.

THE ETHICS: Greek Text, Illustra-
ted with Essay and Notes. By Sir
ALEXANDER GRANT, Bart. 2 vols.
8vo, 32s.

AN INTRODUCTION TO ARISTO-
TLE'S ETHICS. Books I.-IV. (Book
X., c. vi.-ix. in an Appendix.) With
a continuous Analysis and Notes.
By the Rev. E. MOORE, D.D. Crown
8vo, 10s. 6d.

Bacon (FRANCIS).

COMPLETE WORKS. Edited by R.
L. ELLIS, JAMES SPEDDING and D. D.
HEATH. 7 vols. 8vo, £3 13s. 6d.

Bacon (FRANCIS)—continued.

LETTERS AND LIFE, including all
his occasional Works. Edited by
JAMES SPEDDING. 7 vols. 8vo,
£4 4s.

THE ESSAYS: With Annotations. By
RICHARD WHEATELY, D.D. 8vo, 10s. 6d.

THE ESSAYS: With Notes by F.
STORR and C. H. GIBSON. Crown
8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE ESSAYS: With Introduction,
Notes and Index. By E. A. ABBOTT,
D.D. 2 vols. Fcp. 8vo, 6s. The
Text and Index only, without Intro-
duction and Notes, in one volume.
Fcp. 8vo, 2s. 6d.

Mental, Moral and Political Philosophy—continued.

Bain (ALEXANDER).

MENTAL AND MORAL SCIENCE: a Compendium of Psychology and Ethics. Crown 8vo, 10s. 6d.

Or Separately,

Part I. PSYCHOLOGY AND HISTORY OF PHILOSOPHY. Crown 8vo, 6s. 6d.

Part II. THEORY OF ETHICS AND ETHICAL SYSTEMS. Cr. 8vo, 4s. 6d.

LOGIC. Part I. DEDUCTION. Crown 8vo, 4s. Part II. INDUCTION. Crown 8vo, 6s. 6d.

THE SENSES AND THE INTELLECT. 8vo, 15s.

THE EMOTIONS AND THE WILL. 8vo, 15s.

PRACTICAL ESSAYS. Cr. 8vo, 2s.

Bray.—THE PHILOSOPHY OF NECESSITY: or, Law in Mind as in Matter. By CHARLES BRAY. Cr. 8vo, 5s.

Brooks.—THE ELEMENTS OF MIND: being an Examination into the Nature of the First Division of the Elementary Substances of Life. By H. JAMYN BROOKS. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.

Crozier (JOHN BEATTIE).

CIVILIZATION AND PROGRESS: being the Outlines of a New System of Political, Religious and Social Philosophy. 8vo, 14s.

HISTORY OF INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT: on the Lines of Modern Evolution.

Vol. I. 8vo, 14s.

Vol. II. (*In preparation.*)

Vol. III. 8vo, 10s. 6d.

Davidson.—THE LOGIC OF DEFINITION, Explained and Applied. By WILLIAM L. DAVIDSON, M.A. Cr. 8vo, 6s.

Green (THOMAS HILL).—THE WORKS OF. Edited by R. L. NETTLESHIP. Vols. I. and II. Philosophical Works. 8vo, 16s. each.

Vol. III. Miscellanies. With Index to the three Volumes, and Memoir. 8vo, 21s.

LECTURES ON THE PRINCIPLES OF POLITICAL OBLIGATION. With Preface by BERNARD BOSANQUET. 8vo, 5s.

Gurnhill.—THE MORALS OF SUICIDE. By the Rev. J. GURNHILL, B.A. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Hodgson (SHADWORTH H.).

TIME AND SPACE: a Metaphysical Essay. 8vo, 16s.

THE THEORY OF PRACTICE: an Ethical Inquiry. 2 vols. 8vo, 24s.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF REFLECTION. 2 vols. 8vo, 21s.

THE METAPHYSIC OF EXPERIENCE. Book I. General Analysis of Experience; Book II. Positive Science; Book III. Analysis of Conscious Action; Book IV. The Real Universe. 4 vols. 8vo, 36s. net.

Hume.—THE PHILOSOPHICAL WORKS OF DAVID HUME. Edited by T. H. GREEN and T. H. GROSE. 4 vols. 8vo, 28s. Or separately. Essays. 2 vols. 14s. Treatise of Human Nature. 2 vols. 14s.

James.—THE WILL TO BELIEVE, and Other Essays in Popular Philosophy. By WILLIAM JAMES, M.D., LL.D., etc. Crown, 8vo, 7s. 6d.

Justinian.—THE INSTITUTES OF JUSTINIAN: Latin Text, chiefly that of Huschke, with English Introduction, Translation, Notes and Summary. By THOMAS C. SANDARS, M.A. 8vo, 18s.

Kant (IMMANUEL).

CRITIQUE OF PRACTICAL REASON, AND OTHER WORKS ON THE THEORY OF ETHICS. Translated by T. K. ABBOTT, B.D. With Memoir. 8vo, 12s. 6d.

FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF THE METAPHYSIC OF ETHICS. Translated by T. K. ABBOTT, B.D. Crown 8vo, 3s.

INTRODUCTION TO LOGIC, AND HIS ESSAY ON THE MISTAKEN SUBTILITY OF THE FOUR FIGURES. Translated by T. K. ABBOTT. 8vo, 6s.

Mental, Moral and Political Philosophy—continued.

Kelly.—GOVERNMENT OR HUMAN EVOLUTION. By EDMOND KELLY, M.A., F.G.S. Vol. I. Justice. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d. net. Vol. II. Collectivism and Individualism. Cr. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.

Killick.—HANDBOOK TO MILL'S SYSTEM OF LOGIC. By Rev. A. H. KILLICK, M.A. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Ladd (GEORGE TRUMBULL).

PHILOSOPHY OF CONDUCT: a Treatise of the Facts, Principles and Ideals of Ethics. 8vo, 21s.

ELEMENTS OF PHYSIOLOGICAL PSYCHOLOGY. 8vo, 21s.

OUTLINES OF DESCRIPTIVE PSYCHOLOGY: a Text-Book of Mental Science for Colleges and Normal Schools. 8vo, 12s.

OUTLINES OF PHYSIOLOGICAL PSYCHOLOGY. 8vo, 12s.

PRIMER OF PSYCHOLOGY. Crown 8vo, 5s. 6d.

Lecky.—THE MAP OF LIFE: Conduct and Character. By WILLIAM EDWARD HARTPOLE LECKY. Library Edition, 8vo, 10s. 6d. Cabinet Edition, Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

Leighton.—TYPICAL MODERN CONCEPTIONS OF GOD; or, The Absolute of German Romantic Idealism and of English Evolutionary Agnosticism. With a Constructive Essay. By JOSEPH ALEXANDER LEIGHTON. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. net.

Lutoslawski.—THE ORIGIN AND GROWTH OF PLATO'S LOGIC. With an Account of Plato's Style and of the Chronology of his Writings. By WINCENTY LUTOSLAWSKI. 8vo, 21s.

Max Müller (F.).

THE SCIENCE OF THOUGHT. 8vo, 21s.

THE SIX SYSTEMS OF INDIAN PHILOSOPHY. 8vo, 18s.

THREE LECTURES ON THE VEDANTA PHILOSOPHY. Cr. 8vo, 5s.

Mill (JOHN STUART).

A SYSTEM OF LOGIC. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.
ON LIBERTY. Crown 8vo, 1s. 4d.

CONSIDERATIONS ON REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT. Crown 8vo, 2s.

UTILITARIANISM. 8vo, 2s. 6d.

EXAMINATION OF SIR WILLIAM HAMILTON'S PHILOSOPHY. 8vo, 16s.

NATURE, THE UTILITY OF RELIGION AND THEISM. Three Essays. 8vo, 5s.

Monck.—AN INTRODUCTION TO LOGIC. By WILLIAM HENRY S. MONCK, M.A. Crown 8vo, 5s.

Pierce.—STUDIES IN AUDITORY AND VISUAL SPACE PERCEPTION: Essays on Experimental Psychology. By A. H. PIERCE. Cr. 8vo, 6s. 6d. net.

Richmond.—THE MIND OF A CHILD. By ENNIS RICHMOND. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. net.

Romanes.—MIND AND MOTION AND MONISM. BY GEORGE JOHN ROMANES. Crown 8vo, 4s. 6d.

Sully (JAMES).

THE HUMAN MIND: a Text-book of Psychology. 2 vols. 8vo, 21s.

OUTLINES OF PSYCHOLOGY. Cr. 8vo, 9s.

THE TEACHER'S HANDBOOK OF PSYCHOLOGY. Crown 8vo, 6s. 6d.

STUDIES OF CHILDHOOD. 8vo, 10s. 6d.

CHILDREN'S WAYS: being Selections from the Author's 'Studies of Childhood'. With 25 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 4s. 6d.

Sutherland.—THE ORIGIN AND GROWTH OF THE MORAL INSTINCT. By ALEXANDER SUTHERLAND, M.A. 2 vols. 8vo, 28s.

Swinburne.—PICTURE LOGIC: an Attempt to Popularise the Science of Reasoning. By ALFRED JAMES SWINBURNE, M.A. With 23 Woodcuts. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

Mental, Moral and Political Philosophy—continued.

- Thomas.**—INTUITIVE SUGGESTION. By J. W. THOMAS, Author of 'Spiritual Law in the Natural World,' etc. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. net.
- Webb.**—THE VEIL OF ISIS; a Series of Essays on Idealism. By THOMAS E. WEBB, LL.D., Q.C. 8vo, 10s. 6d.
- Weber.**—HISTORY OF PHILOSOPHY. By ALFRED WEBER, Professor in the University of Strasburg. Translated by FRANK THILLY, Ph.D. 8vo, 16s.
- Whately** (ARCHBISHOP).
BACON'S ESSAYS. With Annotations. 8vo, 10s. 6d.
ELEMENTS OF LOGIC. Crown 8vo, 4s. 6d.
ELEMENTS OF RHETORIC. Crown 8vo, 4s. 6d.
- Zeller** (Dr. EDWARD).
THE STOICS, EPICUREANS, AND SCEPTICS. Translated by the Rev. O. J. REICHEL, M.A. Crown 8vo, 15s.
OUTLINES OF THE HISTORY OF GREEK PHILOSOPHY. Translated by SARAH F. ALLEYNE and EVELYN ABBOTT, M.A., LL.D. Cr. 8vo, 10s. 6d.
PLATO AND THE OLDER ACADEMY. Translated by SARAH F. ALLEYNE and ALFRED GOODWIN, B.A. Crown 8vo, 18s.
SOCRATES AND THE SOCRATIC SCHOOLS. Translated by the Rev. O. J. REICHEL, M.A. Cr. 8vo, 10s. 6d.
ARISTOTLE AND THE EARLIER PERIPATETICS. Translated by B. F. C. COSTELLOE, M.A., and J. H. MUIRHEAD, M.A. 2 vols. Cr. 8vo, 24s.

STONYHURST PHILOSOPHICAL SERIES.

- A MANUAL OF POLITICAL ECONOMY. By C. S. DEVAS, M.A. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.
- FIRST PRINCIPLES OF KNOWLEDGE. By JOHN RICKABY, S.J. Crown 8vo, 5s.
- GENERAL METAPHYSICS. By JOHN RICKABY, S.J. Crown 8vo, 5s.
- LOGIC. By RICHARD F. CLARKE, S.J. Crown 8vo, 5s.
- MORAL PHILOSOPHY (ETHICS AND NATURAL LAW). By JOSEPH RICKABY, S.J. Crown 8vo, 5s.
- NATURAL THEOLOGY. By BERNARD BOEDDER, S.J. Crown 8vo, 6s. 6d.
- PSYCHOLOGY. By MICHAEL MAHER, S.J., D.Litt., M.A. (Lond.). Crown 8vo, 6s. 6d.

History and Science of Language, etc.

- Davidson.**—LEADING AND IMPORTANT ENGLISH WORDS: Explained and Exemplified. By WILLIAM L. DAVIDSON, M.A. Fcp. 8vo, 3s. 6d.
- Farrar.**—LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGES. By F. W. FARRAR, D.D., Dean of Canterbury. Crown 8vo, 6s.
- Graham.**—ENGLISH SYNONYMS, Classified and Explained: with Practical Exercises. By G. F. GRAHAM. Fcp. 8vo, 6s.
- Max Müller** (F.).
THE SCIENCE OF LANGUAGE. 2 vols. Crown 8vo, 10s.
- Max Müller** (F.).—continued.
BIOGRAPHIES OF WORDS, AND THE HOME OF THE ARYAS. Crown 8vo, 5s.
CHIPS FROM A GERMAN WORKSHOP. Vol. III. ESSAYS ON LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE. Crown 8vo, 5s.
LAST ESSAYS. First Series. Essays on Language, Folklore and other Subjects. Crown 8vo, 5s.
- Roget.**—THESAURUS OF ENGLISH WORDS AND PHRASES. Classified and Arranged so as to Facilitate the Expression of Ideas and Assist in Literary Composition. By PETER MARK ROGET, M.D., F.R.S. With full Index. Cr. 8vo, 9s. net.

Political Economy and Economics.

Ashley (W. J.).

ENGLISH ECONOMIC HISTORY AND THEORY. Crown 8vo, Part I., 5s. Part II., 10s. 6d.

SURVEYS, HISTORIC AND ECONOMIC. Crown 8vo, 9s. net.

Bagehot.—ECONOMIC STUDIES. By WALTER BAGEHOT. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Barnett.—PRACTICABLE SOCIALISM. Essays on Social Reform. By SAMUEL A. and HENRIETTA BARNETT. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Devas.—A MANUAL OF POLITICAL ECONOMY. By C. S. DEVAS, M.A. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d. (*Stonyhurst Philosophical Series.*)

Lawrence.—LOCAL VARIATIONS IN WAGES. By F. W. LAWRENCE, M.A. With Index and 18 Maps and Diagrams. 4to, 8s. 6d.

Leslie.—ESSAYS ON POLITICAL ECONOMY. By T. E. CLIFFE LESLIE, Hon. LL.D., Dubl. 8vo, 10s. 6d.

Macleod (HENRY DUNNING). ECONOMICS FOR BEGINNERS. Cr. 8vo, 2s.

THE ELEMENTS OF ECONOMICS. 2 vols. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. each.

BIMETALLISM. 8vo, 5s. net.

THE ELEMENTS OF BANKING. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF BANKING. Vol. I. 8vo, 12s. Vol. II. 14s.

Macleod (HENRY DUNNING)—*cont.*

THE THEORY OF CREDIT. 8vo.

In 1 vol. 30s. net; or separately, Vol. I., 10s. net. Vol. II., Part I., 10s. net. Vol. II., Part II., 10s. net.

INDIAN CURRENCY. 8vo, 2s. 6d. net.

Mill.—POLITICAL ECONOMY. By JOHN STUART MILL.

Popular Edition. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Library Edition. 2 vols. 8vo, 30s.

Mulhall.—INDUSTRIES AND WEALTH OF NATIONS. By MICHAEL G. MULHALL, F.S.S. With 32 Diagrams. Crown 8vo, 8s. 6d.

Spahr.—AMERICA'S WORKING PEOPLE. By CHARLES B. SPAHR. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

Symes.—POLITICAL ECONOMY: a Short Textbook of Political Economy. With Problems for solution, Hints for Supplementary Reading, and a Supplementary chapter on Socialism. By J. E. SYMES, M.A. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

Toynbee.—LECTURES ON THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION OF THE 18TH CENTURY IN ENGLAND. By ARNOLD TOYNBEE. 8vo, 10s. 6d.

Webb (SIDNEY and BEATRICE).

THE HISTORY OF TRADE UNIONISM. With Map and Bibliography. 8vo, 7s. 6d. net.

INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACY: a Study in Trade Unionism. 2 vols. 8vo, 12s. net.

PROBLEMS OF MODERN INDUSTRY: Essays. 8vo, 7s. 6d.

Evolution, Anthropology, etc.

Clodd (EDWARD).

THE STORY OF CREATION: a Plain Account of Evolution. With 77 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

A PRIMER OF EVOLUTION: being a Popular Abridged Edition of 'The Story of Creation'. With Illustrations. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.

Lubbock.—THE ORIGIN OF CIVILISATION, and the Primitive condition of Man. By Sir J. LUBBOCK, Bart., M.P. (Lord Avebury). With 5 Plates and 20 Illustrations. 8vo, 18s.

Evolution, Anthropology, etc.—continued.

Packard.—LAMARCK, THE FOUNDER OF EVOLUTION: his Life and Work, with Translations of his Writings on Organic Evolution. By ALPHEUS S. PACKARD, M.D., LL.D., Professor of Zoology and Geology in Brown University. With 10 Portrait and other Illustrations. Large Crown 8vo, 9s. net.

Romanes (GEORGE JOHN).

ESSAYS. Edited by C. LLOYD MORGAN. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

AN EXAMINATION OF WEISMANNISM. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Romanes (GEORGE JOHN)—continued.

DARWIN, AND AFTER DARWIN: an Exposition of the Darwinian Theory, and a Discussion on Post-Darwinian Questions.

PART I. THE DARWINIAN THEORY. With Portrait of Darwin and 125 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 10s. 6d.

PART II. POST-DARWINIAN QUESTIONS: Heredity and Utility. With Portrait of the Author and 5 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 10s. 6d.

PART III. POST-DARWINIAN QUESTIONS: Isolation and Physiological Selection. Crown 8vo, 5s.

The Science of Religion, etc.

Balfour.—THE FOUNDATIONS OF BELIEF: being Notes Introductory to the Study of Theology. By the Right Hon. ARTHUR JAMES BALFOUR. Crown 8vo, 6s. net.

Baring-Gould.—THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF RELIGIOUS BELIEF. By the Rev. S. BARING-GOULD. 2 vols. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. each.

Campbell.—RELIGION IN GREEK LITERATURE. By the Rev. LEWIS CAMPBELL, M.A., LL.D. 8vo, 15s.

Davidson.—THEISM, as Grounded in Human Nature, Historically and Critically Handled. Being the Burnett Lectures for 1892 and 1893, delivered at Aberdeen. By W. L. DAVIDSON, M.A., LL.D. 8vo, 15s.

Lang (ANDREW).

MAGIC AND RELIGION. 8vo, 10s. 6d.

CUSTOM AND MYTH: Studies of Early Usage and Belief. With 15 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

MYTH, RITUAL AND RELIGION. 2 vols. Crown 8vo, 7s.

MODERN MYTHOLOGY: a Reply to Professor Max Müller. 8vo, 9s.

THE MAKING OF RELIGION. Cr. 8vo, 5s. net.

Max Müller (The Right Hon. F.).

CHIPS FROM A GERMAN WORKSHOP. Vol. IV. Essay on Mythology and Folk Lore. Crown 8vo, 5s.

THE SIX SYSTEMS OF INDIAN PHILOSOPHY. 8vo, 18s.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE SCIENCE OF MYTHOLOGY. 2 vols. 8vo, 32s.

Max Müller (The Rt. Hon. F.)—contd.

THE ORIGIN AND GROWTH OF RELIGION, as illustrated by the Religions of India. The Hibbert Lectures, delivered at the Chapter House, Westminster Abbey, in 1878. Cr. 8vo, 5s.

INTRODUCTION TO THE SCIENCE OF RELIGION: Four Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution. Crown 8vo, 5s.

NATURAL RELIGION. The Gifford Lectures, delivered before the University of Glasgow in 1888. Cr. 8vo, 5s.

PHYSICAL RELIGION. The Gifford Lectures, delivered before the University of Glasgow in 1890. Cr. 8vo, 5s.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL RELIGION. The Gifford Lectures, delivered before the University of Glasgow in 1891. Crown 8vo, 5s.

THEOSOPHY; or, PSYCHOLOGICAL RELIGION. The Gifford Lectures, delivered before the University of Glasgow in 1892. Crown 8vo, 5s.

THREE LECTURES ON THE VEDANTA PHILOSOPHY, delivered at the Royal Institution in March, 1894. Crown 8vo, 5s.

LAST ESSAYS. Second Series—Essays on the Science of Religion. Cr. 8vo, 5s.

Wood-Martin (W. G.).

TRACES OF THE ELDER FAITHS OF IRELAND: a Folklore Sketch. A Handbook of Irish Pre-Christian Traditions. With 192 Illustrations. 2 vols. 8vo, 30s. net.

PAGAN IRELAND: an Archæological Sketch. A Handbook of Irish Pre-Christian Antiquities. With 512 Illustrations. 8vo, 15s.

Classical Literature, Translations, etc.

Abbott.—HELLENICA. A Collection of Essays on Greek Poetry, Philosophy, History and Religion. Edited by EVELYN ABBOTT, M.A., LL.D. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.

Æschylus.—EUMENIDES OF ÆSCHYLUS. With Metrical English Translation. By J. F. DAVIES. 8vo, 7s.

Aristophanes.—THEACHARNIANS OF ARISTOPHANES, translated into English Verse. By R. Y. TYRRELL. Crown 8vo, 1s.

Becker (W. A.). Translated by the Rev. F. METCALFE, B.D.

GALLUS: or, Roman Scenes in the Time of Augustus. With Notes and Excursuses. With 26 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

CHARICLES: or, Illustrations of the Private Life of the Ancient Greeks. With Notes and Excursuses. With 26 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Campbell.—RELIGION IN GREEK LITERATURE. By the Rev. LEWIS CAMPBELL, M.A., LL.D., Emeritus Professor of Greek, University of St. Andrews. 8vo, 15s.

Cicero.—CICERO'S CORRESPONDENCE. By R. Y. TYRRELL. Vols. I., II., III., 8vo, each 12s. Vol. IV., 15s. Vol. V., 14s. Vol. VI., 12s. Vol. VII., Index, 7s. 6d.

Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Edited by a Committee of the Classical Instructors of Harvard University. Vols. XI. and XII. 1900 and 1901. 8vo, 6s. 6d. net.

Hime.—LUCIAN, THE SYRIAN SATIRIST. By Lieut.-Colonel HENRY W. L. HIME (late) Royal Artillery. 8vo, 5s. net.

Homer.

THE ILIAD OF HOMER. Freely rendered into English Prose for the use of those who cannot read the original. By SAMUEL BUTLER. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.

Homer—continued.

THE ODYSSEY. Rendered into English Prose for the use of those who cannot read the original. By SAMUEL BUTLER. With 4 Maps and 7 Illustrations. 8vo, 7s. 6d.

THE ODYSSEY OF HOMER. Done into English Verse. By WILLIAM MORRIS. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Horace.—THE WORKS OF HORACE, rendered into English Prose. With Life, Introduction and Notes. By WILLIAM COUTTS, M.A. Crown 8vo., 5s. net.

Keller.—HOMERIC SOCIETY: a Sociological Study of the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey'. By ALBERT GALLOWAY KELLER Ph.D. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

Lucan.—THE PHARSALIA OF LUCAN, Translated into Blank Verse. By Sir EDWARD RIDLEY. 8vo, 14s.

Lucian.—TRANSLATIONS FROM LUCIAN. By AUGUSTA M. CAMPBELL DAVIDSON, M.A. Edin. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

Mackail.—SELECT EPIGRAMS FROM THE GREEK ANTHOLOGY. By J. W. MACKAIL. Edited with a Revised Text, Introduction, Translation, and Notes. 8vo, 16s.

Ogilvie.—HORAE LATINAE: Studies in Synonyms and Syntax. By the late ROBERT OGILVIE, M.A., LL.D., H.M. Chief Inspector of Schools for Scotland. Edited by ALEXANDER SOUTER, M.A. With a Memoir by JOSEPH OGILVIE, M.A., LL.D. 8vo, 12s. 6d. net.

Rich.—A DICTIONARY OF ROMAN AND GREEK ANTIQUITIES. By A. RICH, B.A. With 2000 Woodcuts. Crown 8vo, 6s. net.

Sophocles.—Translated into English Verse. By ROBERT WHITELAW, M.A., Assistant Master in Rugby School. Cr. 8vo, 8s. 6d.

Tyrrell.—DUBLIN TRANSLATIONS INTO GREEK AND LATIN VERSE. Edited by R. Y. TYRRELL. 8vo, 6s.

Classical Literature, Translations, etc.—continued.

Virgil.

THE POEMS OF VIRGIL. Translated into English Prose by JOHN CONINGTON. Crown 8vo, 6s.

THE ÆNEID OF VIRGIL. Translated into English Verse by JOHN CONINGTON. Crown 8vo, 6s.

THE ÆNEIDS OF VIRGIL. Done into English Verse. By WILLIAM MORRIS. Crown 8vo, 6s.

THE ÆNEID OF VIRGIL, freely translated into English Blank Verse. By W. J. THORNHILL. Crown 8vo, 6s. net.

Virgil—continued.

THE ÆNEID OF VIRGIL. Translated into English Verse by JAMES RHOADES.

Books I.-VI. Crown 8vo, 5s.

Books VII.-XII. Crown 8vo, 5s.

THE ECOLOGUES AND GEORGICS OF VIRGIL. Translated into English Prose by J. W. MACKAIL, Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford. 16mo, 5s.

Wilkins.—THE GROWTH OF THE HOMERIC POEMS. By G. WILKINS. 8vo, 6s.

Poetry and the Drama.

Arnold.—THE LIGHT OF THE WORLD; or, the Great Consummation. By Sir EDWIN ARNOLD. With 14 Illustrations after HOLMAN HUNT. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

Bell (Mrs. HUGH).

CHAMBER COMEDIES: a Collection of Plays and Monologues for the Drawing-room. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

FAIRY TALE PLAYS, AND HOW TO ACT THEM. With 91 Diagrams and 52 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. net.

RUMPELSTILTZKIN: a Fairy Play in Five Scenes (Characters, 7 Male; 1 Female). From 'Fairy Tale Plays and How to Act Them'. With Illustrations, Diagrams and Music. Crown 8vo, sewed, 6d.

Bird.—RONALD'S FAREWELL, and other Verses. By GEORGE BIRD, M.A., Vicar of Bradwell, Derbyshire. Fcp. 8vo, 4s. 6d. net.

Dabney.—THE MUSICAL BASIS OF VERSE: a Scientific Study of the Principles of Poetic Composition. By J. P. DABNEY. Crown 8vo, 6s. 6d. net.

Goethe.—THE FIRST PART OF THE TRAGEDY OF FAUST IN ENGLISH. By THOS. E. WEBB, LL.D., sometime Fellow of Trinity College; Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Dublin, etc. New and Cheaper Edition, with THE DEATH OF FAUST, from the Second Part. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Ingelow (JEAN).

POETICAL WORKS. Complete in One Volume. Crown 8vo, gilt top, 6s. net.

LYRICAL AND OTHER POEMS. Selected from the Writings of JEAN INGELow. Fcp. 8vo, 2s. 6d. cloth plain, 3s. cloth gilt.

Lang (ANDREW).

GRASS OF PARNASSUS. Fcp. 8vo, 2s. 6d. net.

THE BLUE POETRY BOOK. Edited by ANDREW LANG. With 100 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

Lecky.—POEMS. By the Right Hon. W. E. H. LECKY. Fcp. 8vo, 5s.

Lytton (THE EARL OF), (OWEN MEREDITH).

THE WANDERER. Cr. 8vo, 10s. 6d.

LUCILE. Crown 8vo, 10s. 6d.

SELECTED POEMS. Cr. 8vo, 10s. 6d.

Macaulay.—LAYS OF ANCIENT ROME, WITH 'IVRY' AND 'THE ARMADA'. By Lord MACAULAY. Illustrated by G. SCHARF. Fcp. 4to, 10s. 6d.

Bijou
Edition, 18mo, 2s. 6d., gilt top.

Popular
Edition, Fcp. 4to, 6d. sewed, 1s. cloth.
Illustrated by J. R. WEGUELIN. Cr. 8vo, 3s. net.

Annotated Edition. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. sewed, 1s. 6d. cloth.

Poetry and the Drama—*continued.*

MacDonald.—A BOOK OF STRIFE, IN THE FORM OF THE DIARY OF AN OLD SOUL: Poems. By GEORGE MACDONALD, LL.D. 18mo, 6s.

Moon.—POEMS OF LOVE AND HOME. By GEORGE WASHINGTON MOON, Hon. F.R.S.L. With Portrait. 16mo, 2s. 6d.

Morris (WILLIAM).

POETICAL WORKS—LIBRARY EDITION.

Complete in 11 volumes. Crown 8vo, price 5s. net each.

THE EARTHLY PARADISE. 4 vols. Crown 8vo, 5s. net each.

THE LIFE AND DEATH OF JASON. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

THE DEFENCE OF GUENEVERE, and other Poems. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

THE STORY OF SIGURD THE VOLSUNG, AND THE FALL OF THE NIBLUNGS. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

POEMS BY THE WAY, AND LOVE IS ENOUGH. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

THE ODYSSEY OF HOMER. Done into English Verse. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

THE ÆNEIDS OF VIRGIL. Done into English Verse. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

THE TALE OF BEOWULF, SOMETIME KING OF THE FOLK OF THE WEDERGEATS. Translated by WILLIAM MORRIS and A. J. WYATT. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

Certain of the POETICAL WORKS may also be had in the following Editions:—

THE EARTHLY PARADISE.

Popular Edition. 5 Vols. 12mo, 25s.; or 5s. each, sold separately.

The same in Ten Parts, 25s.; or 2s. 6d. each, sold separately.

Cheap Edition, in 1 vol. Crown 8vo, 6s. net.

POEMS BY THE WAY. Square crown 8vo, 6s.

* * For Mr. William Morris's other Works, see pp. 27, 37, 38, 40.

Morte Arthur: an Alliterative Poem of the Fourteenth Century. Edited from the Thornton MS., with Introduction, Notes and Glossary. By MARY MACLEOD BANKS. Fcp. 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Nesbit.—LAYS AND LEGENDS. By E. NESBIT (Mrs. HUBERT BLAND). First Series. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. Second Series. With Portrait. Crown 8vo, 5s.

Ramal.—SONGS OF CHILDHOOD. By WALTER RAMAL. With a Frontispiece from a Drawing by RICHARD DOYLE. Fcp. 8vo, 3s. 6d. net.

Riley.—OLD-FASHIONED ROSES: Poems. By JAMES WHITCOMBE RILEY. 12mo, gilt top, 5s.

Romanes.—A SELECTION FROM THE POEMS OF GEORGE JOHN ROMANES, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S. With an Introduction by T. HERBERT WARREN, President of Magdalen College, Oxford. Crown 8vo, 4s. 6d.

Savage-Armstrong.—BALLADS OF DOWN. By G. F. SAVAGE-ARMSTRONG. M.A., D.Litt. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.

Shakespeare.

BOWDLER'S FAMILY SHAKESPEARE. With 36 Woodcuts. 1 vol. 8vo, 14s. Or in 6 vols. Fcp. 8vo, 21s.

THE SHAKESPEARE BIRTHDAY BOOK. By MARY F. DUNBAR. 32mo, 1s. 6d.

Stevenson.—A CHILD'S GARDEN OF VERSES. By ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON. Fcp. 8vo, gilt top, 5s.

Wagner.—THE NIBELUNGEN RING. Done into English Verse by REGINALD RANKIN, B.A., of the Inner Temple, Barrister-at-Law.

Vol. I. Rhine Gold, The Valkyrie. Fcp. 8vo, gilt top, 4s. 6d.

Vol. II. Siegfried, The Twilight of the Gods. Fcp. 8vo, gilt top, 4s. 6d.

Fiction, Humour, etc.

Anstey (F.).

VOCES POPULI. (Reprinted from *Punch*.)

First Series. With 20 Illustrations by J. BERNARD PARTRIDGE. Crown 8vo, gilt top, 3s. net.

Second Series. With 25 Illustrations by J. BERNARD PARTRIDGE. Crown 8vo, gilt top, 3s. net.

THE MAN FROM BLANKLEY'S, and other Sketches. (Reprinted from *Punch*.) With 25 Illustrations by J. BERNARD PARTRIDGE. Crown 8vo, gilt top, 3s. net.

Bailey.—MY LADY OF ORANGE: a Romance of the Netherlands in the Days of Alva. By H. C. BAILEY. With 8 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Beaconsfield (THE EARL OF).

NOVELS AND TALES. Complete in 11 vols. Crown 8vo, 1s. 6d. each, or in sets, 11 vols., gilt top, 15s. net.

Vivian Grey.	Sybil.
The Young Duke, etc.	Henrietta Temple.
Alroy, Ixion, etc.	Venetia.
Contarini, Fleming, etc.	Coningsby.
Tancred.	Lothair.
	Endymion.

NOVELS AND TALES. THE HUGHENDEN EDITION. With 2 Portraits and 11 Vignettes. - 11 vols. Crown 8vo, 42s.

Churchill.—SAVROLA: a Tale of the Revolution in Laurania. By WINSTON SPENCER CHURCHILL, M.P. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Crawford.—THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF A TRAMP. By J. H. CRAWFORD. With a Photogravure Frontispiece 'The Vagrants,' by FRED. WALKER, and 8 other Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

Creed.—THE VICAR OF ST. LUKE'S. By SIBYL CREED. Cr. 8vo, 6s.

Dougall.—BEGGARS ALL. By L. DOUGALL. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Doyle (A. CONAN).

MICAH CLARKE: a Tale of Monmouth's Rebellion. With 10 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE REFUGEES: a Tale of the Huguenots. With 25 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE STARK MUNRO LETTERS. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE CAPTAIN OF THE POLESTAR, and other Tales. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Dyson.—THE GOLD-STEALERS: a Story of Waddy. By EDWARD DYSON, Author of 'Rhymes from the Mines,' etc. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Farrar (F. W., DEAN OF CANTERBURY).

DARKNESS AND DAWN: or, Scenes in the Days of Nero. An Historic Tale. Crown 8vo, gilt top, 6s. net.

GATHERING CLOUDS: a Tale of the Days of St. Chrysostom. Crown 8vo, gilt top, 6s. net.

Fowler (EDITH H.).

THE YOUNG PRETENDERS. A Story of Child Life. With 12 Illustrations by Sir PHILIP BURNE-JONES, Bart. Crown 8vo, 6s.

THE PROFESSOR'S CHILDREN. With 24 Illustrations by ETHEL KATE BURGESS. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Francis (M. E.).

FIANDER'S WIDOW. Crown 8vo, 6s.

YEOMAN FLEETWOOD. With Frontispiece. Crown 8vo, 3s. net.

PASTORALS OF DORSET. With 8 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Froude.—THE TWO CHIEFS OF DUNBOY: an Irish Romance of the Last Century. By JAMES A. FROUDE. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Fiction, Humour, etc.—*continued.*

Gurdon.—MEMORIES AND FANCIES: Suffolk Tales and other Stories; Fairy Legends; Poems; Miscellaneous Articles. By the late Lady CAMILLA GURDON. Crown 8vo, 5s.

Haggard (H. RIDER).

ALLAN QUATERMAIN. With 31 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

ALLAN'S WIFE. With 34 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

BEATRICE. With Frontispiece and Vignette. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

BLACK HEART AND WHITE HEART, and other Stories. With 33 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 6s.

CLEOPATRA. With 29 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

COLONEL QUARITCH, V.C. With Frontispiece and Vignette. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

DAWN. With 16 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

DOCTOR THERNE. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.

ERIC BRIGHTYES. With 51 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

HEART OF THE WORLD. With 15 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

JOAN HASTE. With 20 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

LYSBETH. With 26 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 6s.

MAIWA'S REVENGE. Cr. 8vo, 1s. 6d.

MONTEZUMA'S DAUGHTER. With 24 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

MR. MEESON'S WILL. With 16 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

NADA THE LILY. With 23 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Haggard (H. RIDER)—*continued.*

SHE. With 32 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

SWALLOW: a Tale of the Great Trek. With 8 Illustrations. Crown 8vo 3s. 6d.

THE PEOPLE OF THE MIST. With 16 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE WITCH'S HEAD. With 16 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Haggard and Lang.—THE WORLD'S DESIRE. By H. RIDER HAGGARD and ANDREW LANG. With 27 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Harte.—IN THE CARQUINEZ WOODS. By BRET HARTE. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Hope.—THE HEART OF PRINCESS OSRA. By ANTHONY HOPE. With 9 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Howard (Lady MABEL).

THE UNDOING OF JOHN BREWSTER. Crown 8vo, 6s.

THE FAILURE OF SUCCESS. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Jerome.—SKETCHES IN LAVENDER: BLUE AND GREEN. By JEROME K. JEROME, Author of 'Three Men in a Boat,' etc. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Joyce.—OLD CELTIC ROMANCES. Twelve of the most beautiful of the Ancient Irish Romantic Tales. Translated from the Gaelic. By P. W. JOYCE, LL.D. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Lang.—A MONK OF FIFE; a Story of the Days of Joan of Arc. By ANDREW LANG. With 13 Illustrations by SELWYN IMAGE. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Fiction, Humour, etc.—continued.

Lyall (EDNA).

THE HINDERERS. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF A SLANDER. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. sewed.

Presentation Edition. With 20 Illustrations by LANCELOT SPEED. Cr. 8vo, 2s. 6d. net.

THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF A TRUTH. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. sewed, 1s. 6d. cloth.

DOREEN. The Story of a Singer. Crown 8vo, 6s.

WAYFARING MEN. Crown 8vo, 6s.

HOPE THE HERMIT: a Romance of Borrowdale. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Marchmont.—IN THE NAME OF A WOMAN: a Romance. By ARTHUR W. MARCHMONT. With 8 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Mason and Lang.—PARSON KELLY. By A. E. W. MASON and ANDREW LANG. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Max Müller.—DEUTSCHE LIEBE (GERMAN LOVE): Fragments from the Papers of an Alien. Collected by F. MAX MÜLLER. Translated from the German by G. A. M. Crown 8vo, gilt top, 5s.

Melville (G. J. WHYTE).

The Gladiators.	Holmby House.
The Interpreter.	Kate Coventry.
Good for Nothing.	Digby Grand.
The Queen's Maries.	General Bounce.

Crown 8vo, 1s. 6d. each.

Merriman.—FLOTSAM: A Story of the Indian Mutiny. By HENRY SETON MERRIMAN. With Frontispiece and Vignette by H. G. MASSEY. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Morris (WILLIAM).

THE SUNDERING FLOOD. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.

THE WATER OF THE WONDROUS ISLES. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.

THE WELL AT THE WORLD'S END. 2 vols. 8vo, 28s.

THE WOOD BEYOND THE WORLD. Crown 8vo, 6s. net.

THE STORY OF THE GLITTERING PLAIN, which has been also called The Land of the Living Men, or The Acre of the Undying. Square post 8vo, 5s. net.

THE ROOTS OF THE MOUNTAINS, wherein is told somewhat of the Lives of the Men of Burgdale, their Friends, their Neighbours, their Foemen, and their Fellows-in-Arms. Written in Prose and Verse. Square cr. 8vo, 8s.

A TALE OF THE HOUSE OF THE WOLFINGS, and all the Kindreds of the Mark. Written in Prose and Verse. Square crown 8vo, 6s.

A DREAM OF JOHN BALL, AND A KING'S LESSON. 12mo, 1s. 6d.

NEWS FROM NOWHERE: or, An Epoch of Rest. Being some Chapters from an Utopian Romance. Post 8vo, 1s. 6d.

THE STORY OF GRETTIR THE STRONG. Translated from the Icelandic by EIRÍKR MAGNÚSSON and WILLIAM MORRIS. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

THREE NORTHERN LOVE STORIES, and other Tales. Translated from the Icelandic by EIRÍKR MAGNÚSSON and WILLIAM MORRIS. Crown 8vo, 6s. net.

* * For Mr. William Morris's other Works, see pp. 24, 37, 38 and 40.

Fiction, Humour, etc.—continued.

Newman (CARDINAL).

LOSS AND GAIN: The Story of a Convert. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

CALLISTA: a Tale of the Third Century. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Phillipps-Wolley.—SNAP: A Legend of the Lone Mountain. By C. PHILLIPPS-WOLLEY. With 13 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Raymond.—TWO MEN O' MENDIP. By WALTER RAYMOND. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Ridley.—ANNE MAINWARING. By ALICE RIDLEY, Author of 'The Story of Aline'. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Sewell (ELIZABETH M.).

A Glimpse of the World. Amy Herbert.

Laneton Parsonage. Cleve Hall.

Margaret Percival. Gertrude.

Katherine Ashton. Home Life.

The Earl's Daughter. After Life.

The Experience of Life. Ursula. Ivors.

Crown 8vo, cloth plain, 1s. 6d. each; cloth extra, gilt edges, 2s. 6d. each.

Sheehan.—LUKE DELMEGE. By the Rev. P. A. SHEEHAN, P.P., Author of 'My New Curate'. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Somerville (E. E.) and Ross (MARTIN).

SOME EXPERIENCES OF AN IRISH R.M. With 31 Illustrations by E. E. SOMERVILLE. Crown 8vo, 6s.

THE REAL CHARLOTTE. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE SILVER FOX. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Stebbing.—RACHEL WULFSTAN, and other Stories. By W. STEBBING, author of 'Probable Tales'. Crown 8vo, 4s. 6d.

Stevenson (ROBERT LOUIS).

THE STRANGE CASE OF DR. JEKYLL AND MR. HYDE. Fep. 8vo, 1s. sewed, 1s. 6d. cloth.

THE STRANGE CASE OF DR. JEKYLL AND MR. HYDE, WITH OTHER FABLES. Cr. 8vo, bound in buckram, with gilt top, 5s. net.

'Silver Library' Edition. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

MORE NEW ARABIAN NIGHTS—THE DYNAMITER. By ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON and FANNY VAN DE GRIFF STEVENSON. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE WRONG BOX. By ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON and LLOYD OSBOURNE. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Suttner.—LAY DOWN YOUR ARMS (*Die Waffen Nieder*): The Autobiography of Martha von Tilling. By BERTHA VON SUTTNER. Translated by T. HOLMES. Crown 8vo, 1s. 6d.

Swan.—BALLAST. By MYRA SWAN. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Trollope (ANTHONY).

THE WARDEN. Crown 8vo, 1s. 6d.

BARCHESTER TOWERS. Crown 8vo, 1s. 6d.

Walford (L. B.).

CHARLOTTE. Crown 8vo, 6s.

ONE OF OURSELVES. Cr. 8vo, 6s.

THE INTRUDERS. Cr. 8vo, 2s. 6d.

LEDDY MARGET. Cr. 8vo, 2s. 6d.

IVA KILDARE: a Matrimonial Problem. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

MR. SMITH: a Part of his Life. Cr. 8vo, 2s. 6d.

THE BABY'S GRANDMOTHER. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

Fiction, Humour, etc.—continued.

Walford (L. B.)—continued.

COUSINS. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

TROUBLESOME DAUGHTERS. Cr. 8vo, 2s. 6d.

PAULINE. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

DICK NETHERBY. Cr. 8vo, 2s. 6d.

THE HISTORY OF A WEEK. Cr. 8vo, 2s. 6d.

A STIFF-NECKED GENERATION. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

NAN, and other Stories. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

THE MISCHIEF OF MONICA. Cr. 8vo, 2s. 6d.

THE ONE GOOD GUEST. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

'PLOUGHED,' and other Stories. Cr. 8vo, 2s. 6d.

THE MATCHMAKER. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

Ward.—ONE POOR SCRUPLE. By Mrs. WILFRID WARD. Crown 8vo, 6s.

West.—EDMUND FULLESTON: or, The Family Evil Genius. By B. B. WEST, Author of 'Half Hours with the Millionaires,' etc. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Weyman (STANLEY).

THE HOUSE OF THE WOLF. With Frontispiece and Vignette. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

A GENTLEMAN OF FRANCE. With Frontispiece and Vignette. Crown 8vo, 6s.

THE RED COCKADE. With Frontispiece and Vignette. Crown 8vo, 6s.

SHREWSBURY. With 24 Illustrations by CLAUDE A. SHEPPERSON. Cr. 8vo, 6s.

SOPHIA. With Frontispiece. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Yeats (S. LEVETT).

THE CHEVALIER D'AURIAC. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE TRAITOR'S WAY. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Popular Science (Natural History, etc.).

Butler.—OUR HOUSEHOLD INSECTS. An Account of the Insect-Pests found in Dwelling-Houses. By EDWARD A. BUTLER, B.A., B.Sc. (Lond.). With 113 Illustrations. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Furneaux (W.).

THE OUTDOOR WORLD; or, The Young Collector's Handbook. With 18 Plates (16 of which are coloured), and 549 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s. net.

Furneaux (W.)—continued.

BUTTERFLIES AND MOTHS (British). With 12 coloured Plates and 241 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s. net.

LIFE IN PONDS AND STREAMS. With 8 coloured Plates and 331 Illustrations in the Text. Cr. 8vo, gilt edges, 6s. net.

Popular Science (Natural History, etc.)—continued.

Hartwig (GEORGE).

THE SEA AND ITS LIVING WONDERS. With 12 Plates and 303 Woodcuts. 8vo, gilt top, 7s. net.

THE TROPICAL WORLD. With 8 Plates and 172 Woodcuts. 8vo, gilt top, 7s. net.

THE POLAR WORLD. With 3 Maps, 8 Plates and 85 Woodcuts. 8vo, gilt top, 7s. net.

THE SUBTERRANEAN WORLD. With 3 Maps and 80 Woodcuts. 8vo, gilt top, 7s. net.

Helmholtz.—POPULAR LECTURES ON SCIENTIFIC SUBJECTS. By HERMANN VON HELMHOLTZ. With 68 Woodcuts. 2 vols. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d. each.

Hudson (W. H.).

BIRDS AND MAN. Large Crown 8vo, 6s. net.

NATURE IN DOWNLAND. With 12 Plates and 14 Illustrations in the Text, by A. D. McCORMICK. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.

BRITISH BIRDS. With a Chapter on Structure and Classification by FRANK E. BEDDARD, F.R.S. With 16 Plates (8 of which are Coloured), and over 100 Illustrations in the Text. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s. net.

BIRDS IN LONDON. With 17 Plates and 15 Illustrations in the Text, by BRYAN HOOK, A. D. McCORMICK, and from Photographs from Nature, by R. B. LODGE. 8vo, 12s.

Millais.—THE NATURAL HISTORY OF THE BRITISH SURFACE-FEEDING DUCKS. By JOHN GUILLE MILLAIS, F.Z.S., etc. With 6 Photographures and 66 Plates (41 in Colours) from Drawings by the Author, ARCHIBALD THORBURN, and from Photographs. Royal 4to, £6 6s.

Proctor (RICHARD A.).

LIGHT SCIENCE FOR LEISURE HOURS. Familiar Essays on Scientific Subjects. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

ROUGH WAYS MADE SMOOTH. Familiar Essays on Scientific Subjects. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

PLEASANT WAYS IN SCIENCE. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

NATURE STUDIES. By R. A. PROCTOR, GRANT ALLEN, A. WILSON, T. FOSTER and E. CLODD. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.

LEISURE READINGS. By R. A. PROCTOR, E. CLODD, A. WILSON, T. FOSTER and A. C. RANYARD. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

* * For Mr. Proctor's other books see pp. 16 and 35 and Messrs. Longmans & Co.'s Catalogue of Scientific Works.

Stanley.—A FAMILIAR HISTORY OF BIRDS. By E. STANLEY, D.D., formerly Bishop of Norwich. With 160 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Wood (Rev. J. G.).

HOMES WITHOUT HANDS: A Description of the Habitations of Animals, classed according to their Principle of Construction. With 140 Illustrations. 8vo, gilt top, 7s. net.

INSECTS AT HOME: A Popular Account of British Insects, their Structure, Habits and Transformations. With 700 Illustrations. 8vo, gilt top, 7s. net.

OUT OF DOORS: a Selection of Original Articles on Practical Natural History. With 11 Illustrations. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.

PETLAND REVISITED. With 33 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

STRANGE DWELLINGS: a Description of the Habitations of Animals, abridged from 'Homes without Hands'. With 60 Illustrations. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Works of Reference.

Gwilt.—AN ENCYCLOPÆDIA OF ARCHITECTURE. By JOSEPH GWILT, F.S.A. With 1700 Engravings. Revised (1888), with alterations and Considerable Additions by WYATT PAPWORTH. 8vo, 21s. net.

Maunder (SAMUEL).

BIOGRAPHICAL TREASURY. With Supplement brought down to 1889. By Rev. JAMES WOOD. Fcp. 8vo, 6s.

TREASURY OF GEOGRAPHY, Physical, Historical, Descriptive and Political. With 7 Maps and 16 Plates. Fcp. 8vo, 6s.

THE TREASURY OF BIBLE KNOWLEDGE. By the Rev. J. AYRE, M.A. With 5 Maps, 15 Plates, and 300 Woodcuts. Fcp. 8vo, 6s.

TREASURY OF KNOWLEDGE AND LIBRARY OF REFERENCE. Fcp. 8vo, 6s.

HISTORICAL TREASURY. Fcp. 8vo, 6s.

Maunder (SAMUEL)—*continued.*

THE TREASURY OF BOTANY. Edited by J. LINDLEY, F.R.S., and T. MOORE, F.L.S. With 274 Woodcuts and 20 Steel Plates. 2 vols. Fcp. 8vo, 12s.

Roget.—THESAURUS OF ENGLISH WORDS AND PHRASES. Classified and Arranged so as to Facilitate the Expression of Ideas and assist in Literary Composition. By PETER MARK ROGET, M.D., F.R.S. Recomposed throughout, enlarged and improved, partly from the Author's Notes, and with a full Index, by the Author's Son, JOHN LEWIS ROGET. Crown 8vo, 9s. net.

Willich.—POPULAR TABLES for giving information for ascertaining the value of Lifehold, Leasehold, and Church Property, the Public Funds, etc. By CHARLES M. WILlich. Edited by H. BENICE JONES. Crown 8vo, 10s. 6d.

Children's Books.

Adelborg.—CLEAN PETER AND THE CHILDREN OF GRUBBYLEA. By OTTILIA ADELBERG. Translated from the Swedish by Mrs. GRAHAM WALLAS. With 23 Coloured Plates. Oblong 4to, boards, 3s. 6d. net.

Brown.—THE BOOK OF SAINTS AND FRIENDLY BEASTS. By ABBIE FARWELL BROWN. With 8 Illustrations by FANNY Y. CORY. Cr. 8vo, 4s. 6d. net.

Buckland.—TWO LITTLE RUN-AWAYS. Adapted from the French of LOUIS DESNOYERS. By JAMES BUCKLAND. With 110 Illustrations by CECIL ALDIN. Crown 8vo, 6s.

Corbin and Going.—URCHINS OF THE SEA. By MARIE OVERTON CORBIN and CHARLES BUXTON GOING. With Drawings by F. I. BENNETT. Oblong 4to, 3s. 6d.

Crake (Rev. A. D.).

EDWY THE FAIR; or, The First Chronicle of Æscendune. Crown 8vo, silver top, 2s. net.

ALFGAR THE DANE: or, The Second Chronicle of Æscendune. Crown 8vo, silver top, 2s. net.

THE RIVAL HEIRS: being the Third and last Chronicle of Æscendune. Crown 8vo, silver top, 2s. net.

THE HOUSE OF WALDERNE. A Tale of the Cloister and the Forest in the Days of the Barons' Wars. Cr. 8vo, silver top, 2s. net.

BRIAN FITZ-COUNT. A Story of Wallingford Castle and Dorchester Abbey. Crown 8vo, silver top, 2s. net.

Children's Books—continued.**Henty** (G. A.).—Edited by.

YULE LOGS: A Story Book for Boys. By **VARIOUS AUTHORS.** With 61 Illustrations. Cr. 8vo, gilt edges, 3s. net.

YULE-TIDE YARNS: a Story Book for Boys. By **VARIOUS AUTHORS.** With 45 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 3s. net.

Lang (ANDREW).—Edited by.

THE VIOLET FAIRY BOOK. With 8 Coloured Plates and 54 other Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

THE BLUE FAIRY BOOK. With 138 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

THE RED FAIRY BOOK. With 100 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

THE GREEN FAIRY BOOK. With 99 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

THE GREY FAIRY BOOK. With 65 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

THE YELLOW FAIRY BOOK. With 104 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

THE PINK FAIRY BOOK. With 67 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

THE BLUE POETRY BOOK. With 100 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

THE TRUE STORY BOOK. With 66 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

THE RED TRUE STORY BOOK. With 100 Illustrations. Cr. 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

THE ANIMAL STORY BOOK. With 67 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

THE RED BOOK OF ANIMAL STORIES. With 65 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

THE ARABIAN NIGHTS ENTERTAINMENTS. With 66 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 6s.

Meade (L. T.).

DADDY'S BOY. With 8 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 3s. net.

DEB AND THE DUCHESS. With 7 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 3s. net.

THE BERESFORD PRIZE. With 7 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 3s. net.

THE HOUSE OF SURPRISES. With 6 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, gilt edges, 3s. net.

Murray.—**FLOWER LEGENDS FOR CHILDREN.** By **HILDA MURRAY** (the Hon. Mrs. MURRAY of Elibank). Pictured by **J. S. ELAND.** With numerous Coloured and other Illustrations. Oblong 4to, 6s.

Praeger (ROSAMOND).

THE ADVENTURES OF THE THREE BOLD BABES: HECTOR, HONORIA AND ALISANDER. A Story in Pictures. With 24 Coloured Plates and 24 Outline Pictures. Oblong 4to, 3s. 6d.

THE FURTHER DOINGS OF THE THREE BOLD BABES. With 24 Coloured Pictures and 24 Outline Pictures. Oblong 4to, 3s. 6d.

Smith.—**THE ADVENTURES OF CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH:** Captain of Two Hundred and Fifty Horse, and sometime President of Virginia. Edited by **E. P. ROBERTS.** Crown 8vo.

Stevenson.—**A CHILD'S GARDEN OF VERSES.** By **ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON.** Fcp. 8vo, gilt top, 5s.

Tappan.—**OLD BALLADS IN PROSE.** By **EVA MARCH TAPPAN.** With 4 Illustrations by **FANNY Y. CORY.** Crown 8vo, gilt top, 4s. 6d. net.

Children's Books—continued.

Upton (FLORENCE K. and BERTHA).

THE ADVENTURES OF TWO DUTCH DOLLS AND A 'GOLLIWOGG'. With 31 Coloured Plates and numerous Illustrations in the Text. Oblong 4to, 6s.

THE GOLLIWOGG'S BICYCLE CLUB. With 31 Coloured Plates and numerous Illustrations in the Text. Oblong 4to, 6s.

THE GOLLIWOGG AT THE SEASIDE. With 31 Coloured Plates and numerous Illustrations in the Text. Oblong 4to, 6s.

Upton (FLORENCE K. and BERTHA)—continued.

THE GOLLIWOGG IN WAR. With 31 Coloured Plates. Oblong 4to, 6s.

THE GOLLIWOGG'S POLAR ADVENTURES. With 31 Coloured Plates. Oblong 4to, 6s.

THE GOLLIWOGG'S AUTO-GO-CART. With 31 Coloured Plates and numerous Illustrations in the Text. Oblong 4to, 6s.

THE VEGE-MEN'S REVENGE. With 31 Coloured Plates and numerous Illustrations in the Text. Oblong 4to, 6s.

THE SILVER LIBRARY.

Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. EACH VOLUME.

Arnold's (Sir Edwin) Seas and Lands. With 17 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

Bagshot's (W.) Biographical Studies. 3s. 6d.

Bagshot's (W.) Economic Studies. 3s. 6d.

Bagshot's (W.) Literary Studies. With Portrait. 3 vols. 3s. 6d. each.

Baker's (Sir S. W.) Eight Years in Ceylon. With 6 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

Baker's (Sir S. W.) Rifle and Hound in Ceylon. With 6 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

Baring-Gould's (Rev. S.) Curious Myths of the Middle Ages. 3s. 6d.

Baring-Gould's (Rev. S.) Origin and Development of Religious Belief. 2 vols. 3s. 6d. each.

Becker's (W. A.) Gallus: or, Roman Scenes in the Time of Augustus. With 26 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

Becker's (W. A.) Charicles: or, Illustrations of the Private Life of the Ancient Greeks. With 26 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

Bent's (J. T.) The Ruined Cities of Mesopotamia. With 117 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

Brassey's (Lady) A Voyage in the 'Sunbeam'. With 66 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

Churchill's (W. Spencer) The Story of the Malakand Field Force, 1897. With 6 Maps and Plans. 3s. 6d.

Clodd's (E.) Story of Creation: a Plain Account of Evolution. With 77 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

Conybeare (Rev. W. J.) and Howson's (Very Rev. J. S.) Life and Epistles of St. Paul. With 46 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

Dougall's (L.) Beggars All; a Novel. 3s. 6d.

Doyle's (A. Conan) Micah Clarke. A Tale of Monmouth's Rebellion. With 10 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

Doyle's (A. Conan) The Captain of the Polestar, and other Tales. 3s. 6d.

Doyle's (A. Conan) The Refugees: A Tale of the Huguenots. With 25 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

Doyle's (A. Conan) The Stark Munro Letters. 3s. 6d.

Froude's (J. A.) The History of England, from the Fall of Wolsey to the Defeat of the Spanish Armada. 12 vols. 3s. 6d. each.

Froude's (J. A.) The English in Ireland. 3 vols. 10s. 6d.

Froude's (J. A.) The Divorce of Catherine of Aragon. 3s. 6d.

Froude's (J. A.) The Spanish Story of the Armada, and other Essays. 3s. 6d.

Froude's (J. A.) English Seamen in the Sixteenth Century. 3s. 6d.

Froude's (J. A.) Short Studies on Great Subjects. 4 vols. 3s. 6d. each.

Froude's (J. A.) Oceana, or England and her Colonies. With 9 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

Froude's (J. A.) The Council of Trent. 3s. 6d.

THE SILVER LIBRARY—*continued.*

- Froude's (J. A.) The Life and Letters of Erasmus.** 3s. 6d.
- Froude's (J. A.) Thomas Carlyle: a History of his Life.**
1795-1835. 2 vols. 7s.
1834-1881. 2 vols. 7s.
- Froude's (J. A.) Cæsar: a Sketch.** 3s. 6d.
- Froude's (J. A.) The Two Chiefs of Dunboy: an Irish Romance of the Last Century.** 3s. 6d.
- Froude's (J. A.) Writings, Selections from.** 3s. 6d.
- Gleig's (Rev. G. R.) Life of the Duke of Wellington.** With Portrait. 3s. 6d.
- Greville's (C. C. F.) Journal of the Reigns of King George IV., King William IV., and Queen Victoria.** 8 vols. 3s. 6d. each.
- Haggard's (H. R.) She: A History of Adventure.** With 32 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) Allan Quatermain.** With 20 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) Colonel Quaritch, V.C.: a Tale of Country Life.** With Frontispiece and Vignette. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) Cleopatra.** With 29 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) Eric Brighteyes.** With 51 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) Beatrice.** With Frontispiece and Vignette. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) Allan's Wife.** With 34 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) Heart of the World.** With 15 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) Montezuma's Daughter.** With 25 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) Swallow: a Tale of the Great Trek.** With 8 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) The Witch's Head.** With 16 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) Mr. Meeson's Will.** With 16 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) Nada the Lily.** With 23 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) Dawn.** With 16 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) The People of the Mist.** With 16 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard's (H. R.) Joan Haste.** With 20 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Haggard (H. R.) and Lang's (A.) The World's Desire.** With 27 Illus. 3s. 6d.
- Harte's (Bret) In the Carquinez Woods, and other Stories.** 3s. 6d.
- Helmholtz's (Hermann von) Popular Lectures on Scientific Subjects.** With 68 Illustrations. 2 vols. 3s. 6d. each.
- Hope's (Anthony) The Heart of Princess Osra.** With 9 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Howitt's (W.) Visits to Remarkable Places.** With 80 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Jefferies' (R.) The Story of My Heart: My Autobiography.** With Portrait. 3s. 6d.
- Jefferies' (R.) Field and Hedgerow.** With Portrait. 3s. 6d.
- Jefferies' (R.) Red Deer.** With 17 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Jefferies' (R.) Wood Magic: a Fable.** With Frontispiece and Vignette by E. V. B. 3s. 6d.
- Jefferies' (R.) The Toilers of the Field.** With Portrait from the Bust in Salisbury Cathedral. 3s. 6d.
- Kaye (Sir J.) and Malleeson's (Colonel) History of the Indian Mutiny of 1857-8.** 6 vols. 3s. 6d. each.
- Knight's (E. F.) The Cruise of the 'Alerte': the Narrative of a Search for Treasure on the Desert Island of Trinidad.** With 2 Maps and 23 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Knight's (E. F.) Where Three Empires Meet: a Narrative of Recent Travel in Kashmir, Western Tibet, Baltistan, Gilgit.** With a Map and 54 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Knight's (E. F.) The 'Falcon' on the Baltic: a Coasting Voyage from Hammersmith to Copenhagen in a Three-Ton Yacht.** With Map and 11 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

THE SILVER LIBRARY—continued.

- Köstlin's (J.) Life of Luther.** With 62 Illustrations and 4 Facsimiles of MSS. 3s. 6d.
- Lang's (A.) Angling Sketches.** With 20 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Lang's (A.) Custom and Myth: Studies of Early Usage and Belief.** 3s. 6d.
- Lang's (A.) Cock Lane and Common-Sense.** 3s. 6d.
- Lang's (A.) The Book of Dreams and Ghosts.** 3s. 6d.
- Lang's (A.) A Monk of Fife: a Story of the Days of Joan of Arc.** With 13 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Lang's (A.) Myth, Ritual and Religion.** 2 vols. 7s.
- Lees (J. A.) and Clutterbuck's (W. J.) B.C. 1887, A Ramble in British Columbia.** With Maps and 75 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Levett-Yeats' (S.) The Chevalier D'Auriac.** 3s. 6d.
- Macaulay's (Lord) Complete Works.** 'Albany' Edition. With 12 Portraits. 12 vols. 3s. 6d. each.
- Macaulay's (Lord) Essays and Lays of Ancient Rome, etc.** With Portrait and 4 Illustrations to the 'Lays'. 3s. 6d.
- Macleod's (H. D.) Elements of Banking.** 3s. 6d.
- Marshman's (J. C.) Memoirs of Sir Henry Havelock.** 3s. 6d.
- Mason (A. E. W.) and Lang's (A.) Parson Kelly.** 3s. 6d.
- Merivale's (Dean) History of the Romans under the Empire.** 8 vols. 3s. 6d. each.
- Merriman's (H. S.) Flotsam: a Tale of the Indian Mutiny.** 3s. 6d.
- Mill's (J. S.) Political Economy.** 3s. 6d.
- Mill's (J. S.) System of Logic.** 3s. 6d.
- Milner's (Geo.) Country Pleasures: the Chronicle of a year chiefly in a Garden.** 3s. 6d.
- Nansen's (F.) The First Crossing of Greenland.** With 142 Illustrations and a Map. 3s. 6d.
- Phillipps-Wolley's (C.) Snap: a Legend of the Lone Mountain.** With 13 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Proctor's (R. A.) The Orbs Around Us.** 3s. 6d.
- Proctor's (R. A.) The Expanse of Heaven.** 3s. 6d.
- Proctor's (R. A.) Light Science for Leisure Hours.** First Series. 3s. 6d.
- Proctor's (R. A.) The Moon.** 3s. 6d.
- Proctor's (R. A.) Other Worlds than Ours.** 3s. 6d.
- Proctor's (R. A.) Our Place among Infinities: a Series of Essays contrasting our Little Abode in Space and Time with the Infinities around us.** 3s. 6d.
- Proctor's (R. A.) Other Suns than Ours.** 3s. 6d.
- Proctor's (R. A.) Rough Ways made Smooth.** 3s. 6d.
- Proctor's (R. A.) Pleasant Ways in Science.** 3s. 6d.
- Proctor's (R. A.) Myths and Marvels of Astronomy.** 3s. 6d.
- Proctor's (R. A.) Nature Studies.** 3s. 6d.
- Proctor's (R. A.) Leisure Readings.** By R. A. PROCTOR, EDWARD CLODD, ANDREW WILSON, THOMAS FOSTER and A. C. RANYARD. With Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Rossetti's (Maria F.) A Shadow of Dante.** 3s. 6d.
- Smith's (R. Bosworth) Carthage and the Carthaginians.** With Maps, Plans, etc. 3s. 6d.
- Stanley's (Bishop) Familiar History of Birds.** With 160 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

THE SILVER LIBRARY—*continued.*

- Stephen's (L.)** *The Playground of Europe (The Alps)*. With 4 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Stevenson's (R. L.)** *The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde*; with other Fables. 3s. 6d.
- Stevenson (R. L.) and Osbourne's (Ll.)** *The Wrong Box*. 3s. 6d.
- Stevenson (Robt. Louis) and Stevenson's (Fanny van de Grift)** *More New Arabian Nights.—The Dynamiter*. 3s. 6d.
- Trevelyan's (Sir G. O.)** *The Early History of Charles James Fox*. 3s. 6d.
- Weyman's (Stanley J.)** *The House of the Wolf: a Romance*. 3s. 6d.
- Wood's (Rev. J. G.)** *Petland Revisited*. With 33 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Wood's (Rev. J. G.)** *Strange Dwellings*. With 60 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.
- Wood's (Rev. J. G.)** *Out of Doors*. With 11 Illustrations. 3s. 6d.

Cookery, Domestic Management, etc.

- Acton.—MODERN COOKERY.** By ELIZA ACTON. With 150 Woodcuts. Fcp. 8vo, 4s. 6d.
- Angwin. — SIMPLE HINTS ON CHOICE OF FOOD**, with Tested and Economical Recipes. For Schools, Homes and Classes for Technical Instruction. By M. C. ANGWIN, Diplomat (First Class) of the National Union for the Technical Training of Women, etc. Crown 8vo, 1s.
- Ashby.—HEALTH IN THE NURSERY.** By HENRY ASHBY, MD., F.R.C.P., Physician to the Manchester Children's Hospital. With 25 Illustrations. Cr. 8vo, 3s. net.
- Bull (THOMAS, M.D.).**
HINTS TO MOTHERS ON THE MANAGEMENT OF THEIR HEALTH DURING THE PERIOD OF PREGNANCY. Fcp. 8vo, sewed, 1s. 6d.; cloth, gilt edges, 2s. net.
THE MATERNAL MANAGEMENT OF CHILDREN IN HEALTH AND DISEASE. Fcp. 8vo, sewed, 1s. 6d.; cloth, gilt edges, 2s. net.
- De Salis (MRS.).**
A LA MODE COOKERY: UP-TO-DATE RECIPES. With 24 Plates (16 in Colours). Crown 8vo, 5s. net.
CAKES AND CONFECTIONS A LA MODE. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
DOGS: A Manual for Amateurs. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
DRESSED GAME AND POULTRY A LA MODE. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
DRESSED VEGETABLES A LA MODE. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
DRINKS A LA MODE. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
- De Salis (MRS.)—continued.**
ENTREES A LA MODE. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
FLORAL DECORATIONS. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
GARDENING A LA MODE. Fcp. 8vo, Part I., Vegetables, 1s. 6d. Part II., Fruits, 1s. 6d.
NATIONAL VIANDS A LA MODE. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
NEW-LAID EGGS. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
OYSTERS A LA MODE. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
PUDDINGS AND PASTRY A LA MODE. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
SAVOIRES A LA MODE. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
SOUPS AND DRESSED FISH A LA MODE. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
SWEETS AND SUPPER DISHES A LA MODE. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
TEMPTING DISHES FOR SMALL INCOMES. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d.
WRINKLES AND NOTIONS FOR EVERY HOUSEHOLD. Crown 8vo, 1s. 6d.
- Lear.—MAIGRE COOKERY.** By H. L. SIDNEY LEAR. 16mo, 2s.
- Poole.—COOKERY FOR THE DIABETIC.** By W. H. and Mrs. POOLE. With Preface by Dr. PAVY. Fcp. 8vo, 2s. 6d.
- Rotheram. — HOUSEHOLD COOKERY RECIPES.** By M. A. ROTHERAM, First Class Diplômée, National Training School of Cookery, London; Instructress to the Bedfordshire County Council. Crown 8vo, 2s.

The Fine Arts and Music.

Burns and Colenso.—**LIVING ANATOMY.** By **CECIL L. BURNS**, R.B.A., and **ROBERT J. COLENSO**, M.A., M.D. 40 Plates, $11\frac{1}{4} \times 8\frac{3}{4}$ in., each Plate containing Two Figures—(a) A Natural Male or Female Figure; (b) The same Figure Anatomised. In a Portfolio. 7s. 6d. net.

Hamlin.—**A TEXT-BOOK OF THE HISTORY OF ARCHITECTURE.** By **A. D. F. HAMLIN**, A.M. With 229 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.

Haweis (Rev. H. R.).

MUSIC AND MORALS. With Portrait of the Author, and Numerous Illustrations, Facsimiles and Diagrams. Crown 8vo, 6s. net.

MY MUSICAL LIFE. With Portrait of Richard Wagner and 3 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 6s. net.

Huish, Head and Longman.—**SAMPLERS AND TAPESTRY EMBROIDERIES.** By **MARCUS B. HUISH**, LL.B.; also 'The Stitchery of the Same,' by Mrs. **HEAD**; and 'Foreign Samplers,' by Mrs. **C. J. LONGMAN**. With 30 Reproductions in Colour and 40 Illustrations in Monochrome. 4to, £2 2s. net.

Hullah.—**THE HISTORY OF MODERN MUSIC.** By **JOHN HULLAH**. 8vo, 8s. 6d.

Jameson (Mrs. ANNA).

SACRED AND LEGENDARY ART, containing Legends of the Angels and Archangels, the Evangelists, the Apostles, the Doctors of the Church, St. Mary Magdalene, the Patron Saints, the Martyrs, the Early Bishops, the Hermits and the Warrior-Saints of Christendom, as represented in the Fine Arts. With 19 Etchings and 187 Woodcuts. 2 vols. 8vo, 20s. net.

LEGENDS OF THE MONASTIC ORDERS, as represented in the Fine Arts, comprising the Benedictines and Augustines, and Orders derived from their rules, the Mendicant Orders, the Jesuits, and the Order of the Visitation of St. Mary. With 11 Etchings and 88 Woodcuts, 1 vol. 8vo, 10s. net.

Jameson (Mrs. ANNA)—*continued.*

LEGENDS OF THE MADONNA, OR BLESSED VIRGIN MARY. Devotional with and without the Infant Jesus, Historical from the Annunciation to the Assumption, as represented in Sacred and Legendary Christian Art. With 27 Etchings and 165 Woodcuts. 1 vol. 8vo, 10s. net.

THE HISTORY OF OUR LORD, as exemplified in Works of Art, with that of His Types, St. John the Baptist, and other persons of the Old and New Testament. Commenced by the late Mrs. **JAMESON**; continued and completed by **LADY EASTLAKE**. With 31 Etchings and 281 Woodcuts. 2 vols. 8vo, 20s. net.

Kingsley.—**A HISTORY OF FRENCH ART, 1100-1899.** By **ROSE G. KINGSLEY**. 8vo, 12s. 6d. net.

Kristeller.—**ANDREA MANTEGNA.** By **PAUL KRISTELLER**. English Edition by **S. ARTHUR STRONG**, M.A., Librarian to the House of Lords, and at Chatsworth. With 26 Photogravure Plates and 162 Illustrations in the Text. 4to, gilt top, £3 10s. net.

Macfarren.—**LECTURES ON HARMONY.** By **SIR GEORGE A. MACFARREN**. 8vo, 12s.

Morris (WILLIAM).

HOPES AND FEARS FOR ART. Five Lectures delivered in Birmingham, London, etc., in 1878-1881. Crown 8vo, 4s. 6d.

AN ADDRESS DELIVERED AT THE DISTRIBUTION OF PRIZES TO STUDENTS OF THE BIRMINGHAM MUNICIPAL SCHOOL OF ART ON 21ST FEBRUARY, 1894. 8vo, 2s. 6d. net. (*Printed in 'Golden' Type.*)

ART AND THE BEAUTY OF THE EARTH. A Lecture delivered at Burslem Town Hall on 13th October, 1881. 8vo, 2s. 6d. net. (*Printed in 'Golden' Type.*)

SOME HINTS ON PATTERN-DESIGNING: a Lecture delivered at the Working Men's College, London, on 10th December, 1881. 8vo, 2s. 6d. net. (*Printed in 'Golden' Type.*)

The Fine Arts and Music—continued.

Morris (WILLIAM)—*continued.*

ARTS AND ITS PRODUCERS (1888)
AND THE ARTS AND CRAFTS OF
TO-DAY (1889). 8vo, 2s. 6d. net.
(Printed in 'Golden' Type.)

ARCHITECTURE AND HISTORY,
AND WESTMINSTER ABBEY. Two
Papers read before the Society for the
Protection of Ancient Buildings. 8vo,
2s. 6d. net. (Printed in 'Golden' Type.)

ARTS AND CRAFTS ESSAYS BY
MEMBERS OF THE ARTS AND
CRAFTS EXHIBITION SOCIETY.
With a Preface by WILLIAM MORRIS.
Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d. net.

* * For Mr. William Morris's other
works see pp. 24, 27 and 40.

Van Dyke.—A TEXT-BOOK ON THE
HISTORY OF PAINTING. By JOHN
C. VAN DYKE. With 110 Illustrations.
Crown 8vo, 6s.

Willard.—HISTORY OF MODERN
ITALIAN ART. By ASHTON ROLLINS
WILLARD. With Photogravure Frontis-
piece and 28 full-page Illustrations. 8vo,
18s. net.

Wellington.—A DESCRIPTIVE AND
HISTORICAL CATALOGUE OF THE
COLLECTIONS OF PICTURES AND
SCULPTURE AT APSLEY HOUSE,
LONDON. By EVELYN, Duchess of
Wellington. Illustrated by 52 Photo-
Engravings, specially executed by
BRAUN, CLÉMENT & Co., of Paris. 2
vols. Royal 4to, £6 6s. net.

Miscellaneous and Critical Works.

Annals of Mathematics (under the
Auspices of Harvard University). Issued
Quarterly. 4to, 2s. net each number.

Bagehot.—LITERARY STUDIES. By
WALTER BAGEHOT. With Portrait. 3
vols. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. each.

Baker.—EDUCATION AND LIFE :
Papers and Addresses. By JAMES H.
BAKER, M.A., LL.D. Crown 8vo, 4s. 6d.

Baring-Gould.—CURIOUS MYTHS
OF THE MIDDLE AGES. By Rev. S.
BARING-GOULD. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Baynes.—SHAKESPEARE STUDIES,
and other Essays. By the late THOMAS
SPENCER BAYNES, LL.B., LL.D. With
a Biographical Preface by Professor
LEWIS CAMPBELL. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d.

**Charities Register, THE ANNUAL,
AND DIGEST;** being a Classified Re-
gister of Charities in or available in the
Metropolis. 8vo, 4s.

Christie.—SELECTED ESSAYS. By
RICHARD COPLEY CHRISTIE, M.A.
Oxon., Hon. LL.D. Vict. With 2 Por-
traits and 3 other Illustrations. 8vo,
12s. net.

Dickinson.—KING ARTHUR IN
CORNWALL. By W. HOWSHIP DICK-
INSON, M.D. With 5 Illustrations.
Crown 8vo, 4s. 6d.

Essays in Paradox. By the Author
of 'Exploded Ideas' and 'Times and
Days'. Crown 8vo, 5s.

Evans.—THE ANCIENT STONE IM-
PLEMENTS, WEAPONS AND ORNA-
MENTS OF GREAT BRITAIN. By
Sir JOHN EVANS, K.C.B. With 537
Illustrations. 8vo, 28s.

**Exploded Ideas, AND OTHER
ESSAYS.** By the Author of 'Times and
Days'. Crown 8vo, 5s.

Frost.—A MEDLEY BOOK. By GEO.
FROST. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. net.

Geikie.—THE VICAR AND HIS
FRIENDS. By CUNNINGHAM GEIKIE,
D.D., LL.D. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

Haggard.—A FARMER'S YEAR :
being his Commonplace Book for 1898.
By H. RIDER HAGGARD. With 36
Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 7s. 6d. net.

Hodgson.—OUTCAST ESSAYS AND
VERSE TRANSLATIONS. By SHAD-
WORTH H. HODGSON, LL.D. Crown 8vo,
8s. 6d.

Hoenig.—INQUIRIES CONCERNING
THE TACTICS OF THE FUTURE.
By FRITZ HOENIG. With 1 Sketch in
the Text and 5 Maps. Translated by
Captain H. M. BOWER. 8vo, 15s. net.

Hutchinson.—DREAMS AND THEIR
MEANINGS. By HORACE G. HUTCHIN-
SON. 8vo, gilt top, 9s. 6d. net.

Miscellaneous and Critical Works—continued.

Jefferies (RICHARD).

FIELD AND HEDGEROW. With Portrait. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE STORY OF MY HEART: my Autobiography. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

RED DEER. With 17 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE TOILERS OF THE FIELD. Cr. 8vo, 3s. 6d.

WOOD MAGIC: a Fable. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Jekyll (GERTRUDE).

HOME AND GARDEN: Notes and Thoughts, Practical and Critical, of a Worker in both. With 53 Illustrations from Photographs. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.

WOOD AND GARDEN: Notes and Thoughts, Practical and Critical, of a Working Amateur. With 71 Illustrations. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.

Johnson (J. & J. H.).

THE PATENTEE'S MANUAL: a Treatise on the Law and Practice of Letters Patent. 8vo, 10s. 6d.

AN EPITOME OF THE LAW AND PRACTICE CONNECTED WITH PATENTS FOR INVENTIONS. With a Reprint of the Patents Acts of 1883, 1885, 1886 and 1888. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

Joyce.—THE ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF IRISH NAMES OF PLACES. By P. W. JOYCE, LL.D. 2 vols. Crown 8vo, 5s. each.

Lang (ANDREW).

LETTERS TO DEAD AUTHORS. Fcp. 8vo, 2s. 6d. net.

BOOKS AND BOOKMEN. With 2 Coloured Plates and 17 Illustrations. Fcp. 8vo, 2s. 6d. net.

OLD FRIENDS. Fcp. 8vo, 2s. 6d. net.

LETTERS ON LITERATURE. Fcp. 8vo, 2s. 6d. net.

ESSAYS IN LITTLE. With Portrait of the Author. Crown 8vo, 2s. 6d.

COCK LANE AND COMMON-SENSE. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

THE BOOK OF DREAMS AND GHOSTS. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.

Maryon.—HOW THE GARDEN GREW. By MAUD MARYON. With 4 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 5s. net.

Matthews.—NOTES ON SPEECH-MAKING. By BRANDER MATTHEWS. Fcp. 8vo, 1s. 6d. net.

Max Müller (The Right Hon. F.).

COLLECTED WORKS. 18 vols. Cr. 8vo, 5s. each.

Vol. I. NATURAL RELIGION: the Gifford Lectures, 1888.

Vol. II. PHYSICAL RELIGION: the Gifford Lectures, 1890.

Vol. III. ANTHROPOLOGICAL RELIGION: the Gifford Lectures, 1891.

Vol. IV. THEOSOPHY; or, Psychological Religion: the Gifford Lectures, 1892.

CHIPS FROM A GERMAN WORKSHOP.

Vol. V. Recent Essays and Addresses.

Vol. VI. Biographical Essays.

Vol. VII. Essays on Language and Literature.

Vol. VIII. Essays on Mythology and Folk-lore.

Vol. IX. THE ORIGIN AND GROWTH OF RELIGION, as illustrated by the Religions of India: the Hibbert Lectures, 1878.

Vol. X. BIOGRAPHIES OF WORDS, AND THE HOME OF THE ARYAS.

Vols. XI, XII. THE SCIENCE OF LANGUAGE: Founded on Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution in 1861 and 1863. 2 vols. 10s.

Vol. XIII. INDIA: What can it Teach Us?

Vol. XIV. INTRODUCTION TO THE SCIENCE OF RELIGION. Four Lectures, 1870.

Vol. XV. RÂMAKRISHNA: his Life and Sayings.

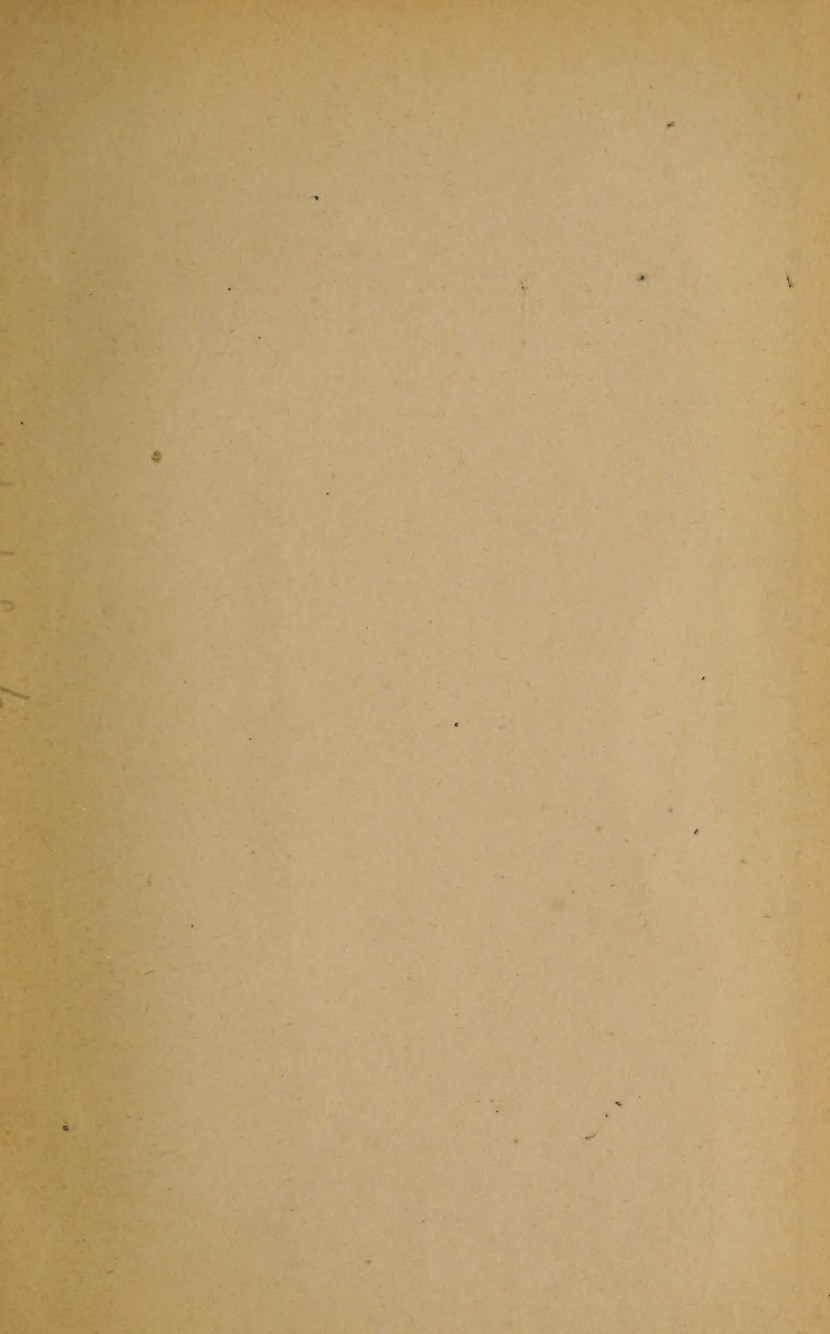
Vol. XVI. THREE LECTURES ON THE VEDÂNTA PHILOSOPHY, 1894.

Vol. XVII. LAST ESSAYS. First Series. Essays on Language, Folk-lore, etc.

Vol. XVIII. LAST ESSAYS. Second Series. Essays on the Science of Religion.

Miscellaneous and Critical Works—*continued*.

- Milner.**—COUNTRY PLEASURES: the Chronicle of a Year chiefly in a Garden. By GEORGE MILNER. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.
- Morris.**—SIGNS OF CHANGE. Seven Lectures delivered on various Occasions. By WILLIAM MORRIS. Post 8vo, 4s. 6d.
- Parker and Unwin.**—THE ART OF BUILDING A HOME: a Collection of Lectures and Illustrations. By BARRY PARKER and RAYMOND UNWIN. With 68 Full-page Plates. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.
- Pollock.**—JANE AUSTEN: her Contemporaries and Herself. By WALTER HERRIES POLLOCK. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d. net.
- Poore** (GEORGE VIVIAN, M.D.).
ESSAYS ON RURAL HYGIENE. With 13 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 6s. 6d.
THE DWELLING HOUSE. With 36 Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.
THE MILROY LECTURES ON THE EARTH IN RELATION TO THE PRESERVATION AND DESTRUCTION OF CONTAGIA, together with other Papers on Public Health. Cr. 8vo.
- Rossetti.**—A SHADOW OF DANTE: being an Essay towards studying Himself, his World, and his Pilgrimage. By MARIA FRANCESCA ROSSETTI. Crown 8vo, 3s. 6d.
- Soulsby** (LUCY H. M.).
STRAY THOUGHTS ON READING. Fcp. 8vo, 2s. 6d. net.
STRAY THOUGHTS FOR GIRLS. 16mo, 1s. 6d. net.
STRAY THOUGHTS FOR MOTHERS AND TEACHERS. Fcp. 8vo, 2s. 6d. net.
- Soulsby** (LUCY H. M.)—*continued*.
STRAY THOUGHTS FOR INVALIDS. 16mo, 2s. net.
STRAY THOUGHTS ON CHARACTER. Fcp. 8vo, 2s. 6d. net.
- Southey.**—THE CORRESPONDENCE OF ROBERT SOUTHEY WITH CAROLINE BOWLES. Edited by EDWARD DOWDEN. 8vo, 14s.
- Stevens.**—ON THE STOWAGE OF SHIPS AND THEIR CARGOES. With Information regarding Freights, Charter-Parties, etc. By ROBERT WHITE STEVENS. 8vo, 21s.
- Sutherland.**—TWENTIETH CENTURY INVENTIONS: A FORECAST. By GEORGE SUTHERLAND, M.A. Crown 8vo, 4s. 6d. net.
- Turner and Sutherland.**—THE DEVELOPMENT OF AUSTRALIAN LITERATURE. By HENRY GYLES TURNER and ALEXANDER SUTHERLAND. With Portraits and Illustrations. Crown 8vo, 5s.
- Warwick.**—PROGRESS IN WOMEN'S EDUCATION IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE: being the Report of Conferences and a Congress held in connection with the Educational Section, Victorian Era Exhibition. Edited by the COUNTESS OF WARWICK. Crown 8vo, 6s.
- Weathers.**—A PRACTICAL GUIDE TO GARDEN PLANTS. By JOHN WEATHERS, F.R.H.S. With 159 Diagrams. 8vo, 21s. net.
- Webb.**—THE MYSTERY OF WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE: A Summary of Evidence. By his Honour Judge T. WEBB, sometime Regius Professor of Laws and Public Orator in the University of Dublin. 8vo, 10s. 6d. net.
- Whittall.**—FREDERIC THE GREAT ON KINGCRAFT, from the Original Manuscript; with Reminiscences and Turkish Stories. By Sir J. WILLIAM WHITTALL, President of the British Chamber of Commerce of Turkey. 8vo, 7s. 6d. net.



Author "Veritas" (pseud.)

62222

HG

Title German Empire of to-day.

V5177g

DATE.

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO
LIBRARY

Do not
remove
the card
from this
Pocket.

Acme Library Card Pocket
Under Pat. "Ref. Index File."
Made by LIBRARY BUREAU

UTL AT DOWNSVIEW



D RANGE BAY SHLF POS ITEM C
39 12 01 05 03 008 5